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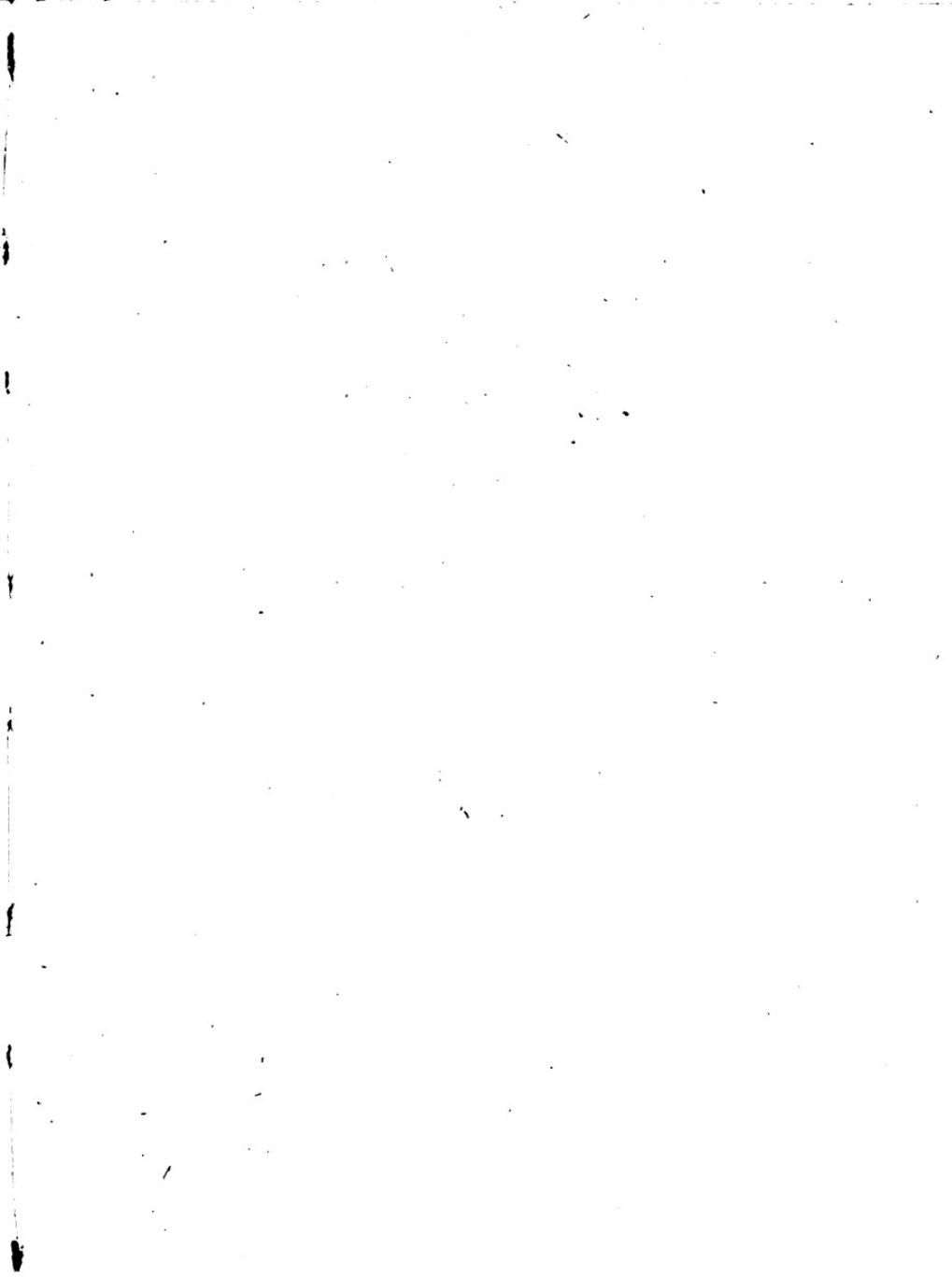


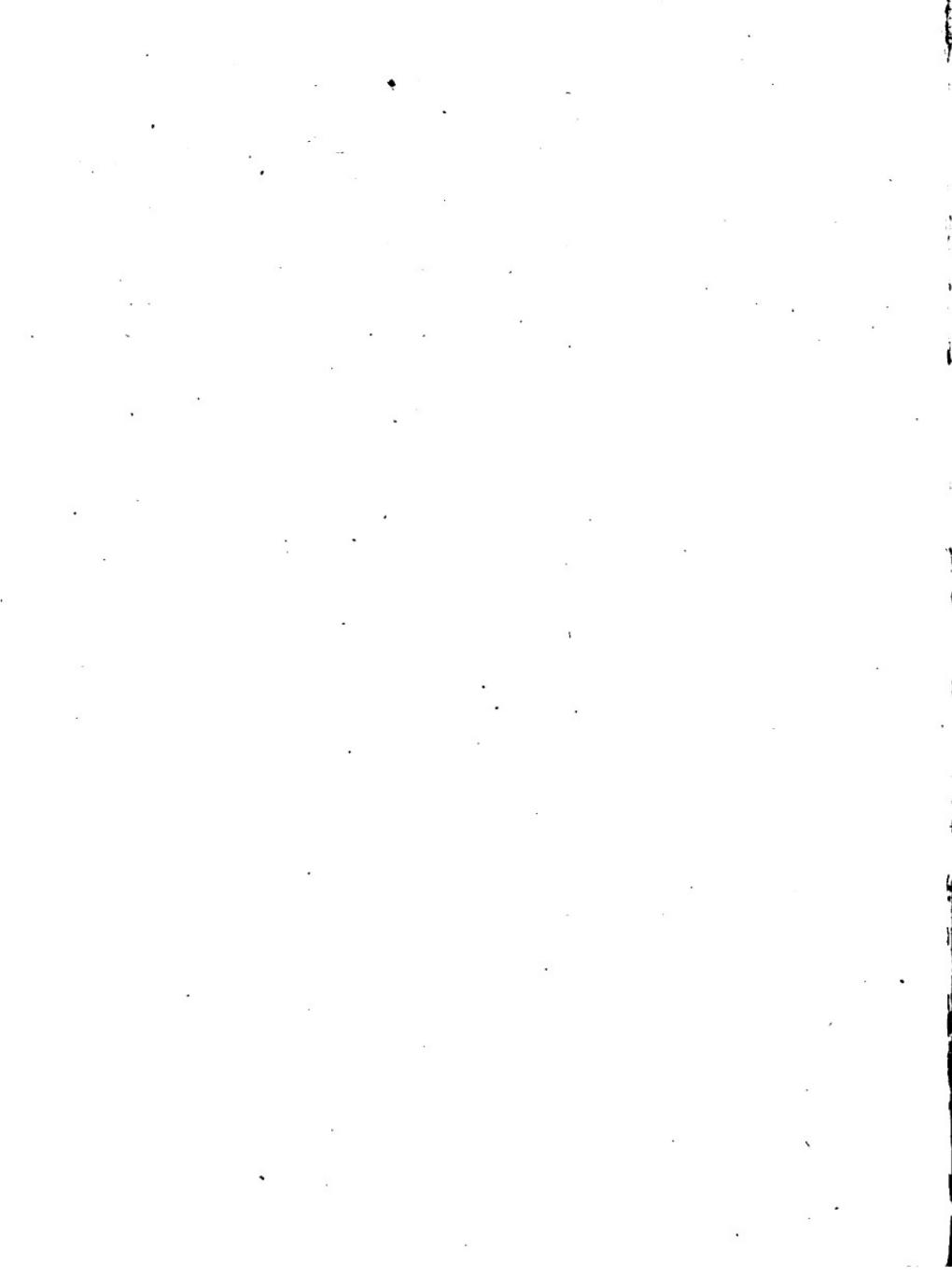
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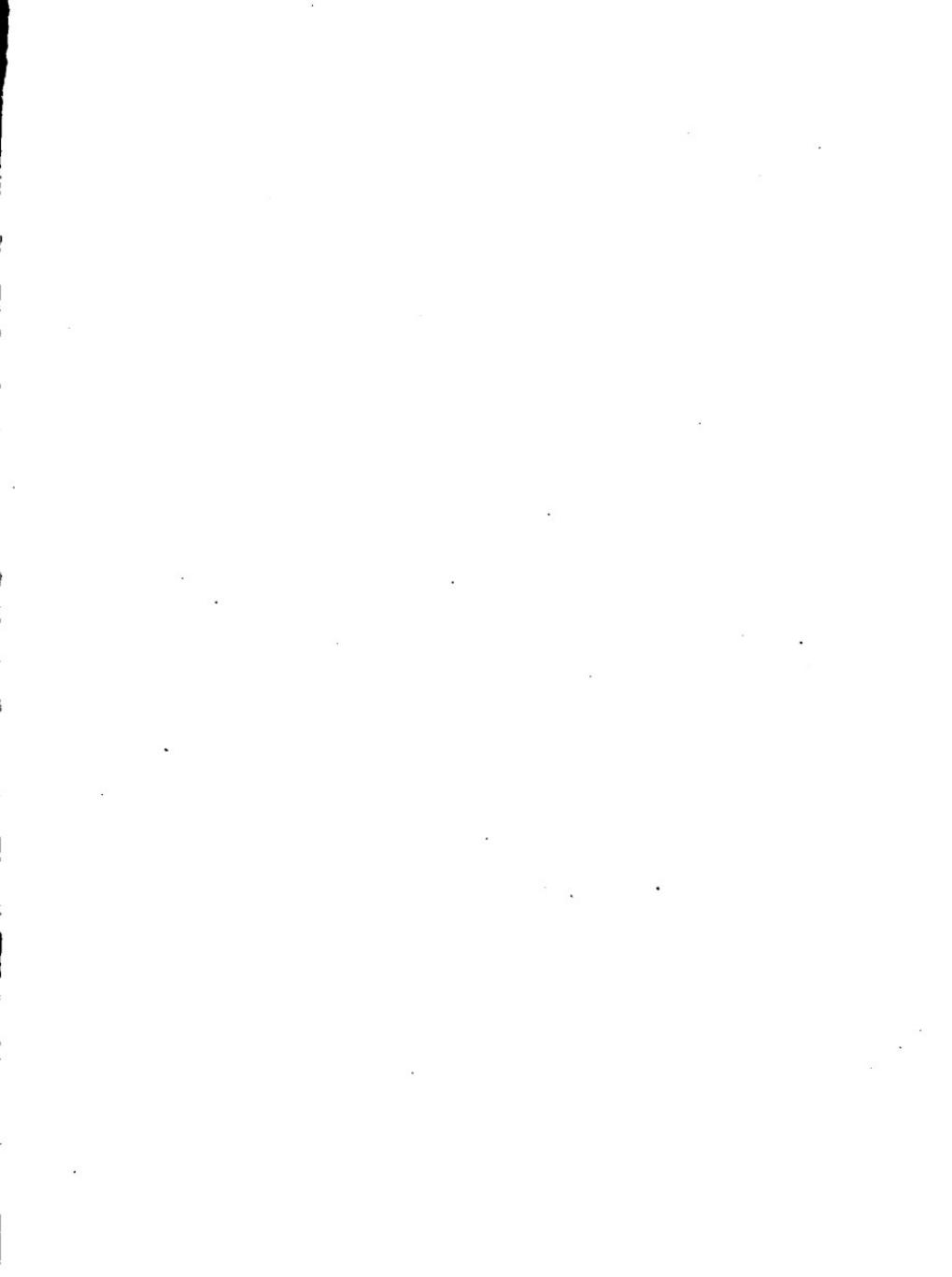
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AND
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POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE, BROOKLYN.

REVISED EDITION.

NEW YORK:
MAYNARD; MERRILL, & Co., PUBLISHERS,
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THE PREFACE

ON a single point, at least, all English grammarians are united. They hold that, by the study of grammar, the pupil should acquire the art of using the English language with propriety. A study of the science that does not issue in this, all agree, fails of its proper end.

They diverge only when they set forth the means to this end. The greater number bewilder the pupil with prolix discussions, and vex him with obscure definitions and numberless rules with their suicidal exceptions. They load his memory with technicalities and appall him with authorities and dull his understanding with endless routine parsing and analysis. With them, grammar is a science, or it is nothing. This the pupil finds to his cost ; but it scarcely dawns upon him that grammar is intended to aid him in communicating his thoughts by tongue and by pen.

In reaction from this extreme, many have sprung to the other. To these, grammar hardly seems to be a science at all ; there are few principles in it that challenge serious attention ; it demands no definitions that even approach exactness ; everything may be loose in treatment and in statement, if only grammar may be made easy, "practical," and "popular." This reaction is just now at its flood. There

never was a time when the universal critic compelled a more scrupulous regard to the technical grammar of the language than now ; and yet there never was a time when skepticism was more rife respecting the study of grammar, as a science, in our schools.

The true method lies, we are sure, in the "golden mean" between these two extremes. Grammar *is* a science—it would not be worth the teaching if it were not—and yet, of all grammars, the English need not burden the memory with scholastic rubbish, or be set down by the pupil as dry and profitless. It *can* teach him the art of correct speaking and writing, and it can do this in a way that shall be attractive; we ask attention to our plan, and to this, our initial work—the outgrowth of such a belief.

The labor of memorizing from the page is here reduced to a minimum. Much of the instruction is oral. In our "Hints for Oral Instruction," the teacher is put in possession of what seems to us the most natural and easy method of developing inductively every topic that arises. This is to be done, in every case, immediately before such topic is to be studied. A necessity is thus created beforehand for every rule, caution, and definition; and exercises, to clinch whatever has been learned, are given without stint.

These are eminently "Graded Lessons in English." The sentence is our unit. Starting with the simplest, of two words, and bringing in gradually, one after another, all kinds of modifying words, phrases, and clauses, the pupil ascends, by the easiest stages possible, to Complex and Compound sentences. Learning thus the offices of the parts of speech, and how words are combined, he is required, all through the book, in Lessons headed "Sentence-Building," to frame this now

familiar material into sentences of his own. All analysis is for the sake of this synthesis, which is ever held before him as the main object of the study. Some of this he is to do as an Impromptu Exercise, and in it all, his invention will constantly be taxed and his thought quickened.

Rules for Punctuation and for the use of Capital Letters are given to aid him in this work ; and violations of such rules and of the principles of syntax are set before him to correct as soon as he sees the reason for the correction.

Having learned the functions of every class of words—as, for instance, of the Noun, that it may be a subject, an object complement, an attribute complement, a modifier in the possessive case, a modifier in apposition, or the principal word in a prepositional phrase—the pupil is ready to pass to the “Subdivision of the Parts of Speech.”

In the third and last division he learns that words may be modified not only by other words but by changes in *form*.

Syntax is not treated by itself, nor are Rules given merely to aid in mechanical parsing.

We invite attention to our system of Diagrams. They have grown out of the suggestions of different teachers in the Polytechnic Institute. They were copyrighted in 1868 by A. Reed and O. H. Hall ; the copyright now stands in our own name. They show, at a glance, the relation of every word and division of the sentence, and are a device attractive and helpful to the pupil in the preparation of his written lessons. The mechanical work interests him, and lures him on to abstract analyses which he could not make without such aid.

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SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER.

We think that these Lessons are adapted, in point of length, to pupils of the average ability. But you must suit them to your class. Do not hesitate to make three Lessons out of two, if it be necessary, or even two out of one. Consider the pupil's age, studies, and time for recitation.

Please study carefully the "Hints." Be prepared to put clearly before your class the *matter* which they contain, but do it in the way that seems best to you—in *ours* if you prefer. Do it, always, as part of the Lesson preceding that in which they stand.

See to it that the pupils do their own work in written analysis. Collect the diagrams before the recitation begins, and ask them to make *oral* analyses of the sentences diagrammed. Compare these with the written.

You can use the diagrams for impromptu reviews. While some of the class are reciting the advance Lesson, others can be at the board, putting in diagram some difficult sentences in back Lessons. They are also very useful in making blackboard illustrations.

Make a judicious use of these diagrams. They are fascinating to the pupil, and so are liable to misuse. Remember that they are only means to an end. That end is the building of neat and correct sentences. *Place great stress upon this Sentence-Building.* In recitation, let the pupils exchange papers and read aloud, while the teacher and class criticise. Let some of the work be placed upon the board for criticism. You will be struck with the crudeness and even coarseness of some sentences, and the neatness and elegance of others. Call attention to the best work, and let it *tone up* the style of the class.

All grammatical inaccuracies in the class room should be promptly corrected, but give the *reason* only when the study of the text has prepared the pupils for it. Give them something to anticipate.

Devise more Impromptu Exercises, if you find them serviceable in awakening enthusiasm. In these and all other available ways, pique the ambition of the pupils, and keep their interest at a white heat.

A TALK ON LANGUAGE.

THE teacher is recommended, before assigning any lesson, to occupy the time of at least two or three recitations, in talking with his pupils about language, always remembering that, in order to secure the interest of his class, he must allow his pupils to take an active part in the exercise. The teacher should guide the thought of his class ; but, if he attempt to do *all the talking*, he will find, when he concludes, that he has been left to do *all the thinking*.

We give below a few hints in conducting this talk on language, but the teacher is not expected to confine himself to them. He will, of course, be compelled, in some instances, to resort to various devices in order to obtain from the pupils answers equivalent to those here suggested.

LESSON 1.

Teacher.—I will pronounce these three sounds very slowly and distinctly, thus: *b-u-d*. Notice, it is the *power*, or *sound*, of the letter, and not its name, that I give. What did you hear?

Pupil.—I heard three sounds.

T.—Give them. I will write on the board, so that you can see them, three letters—*b-u-d*. Are these letters, taken separately, signs to you of anything?

P.—Yes, they are signs to me of the three sounds that I have just heard.

T.—What then do these letters, taken separately, picture to your eye?

P.—They picture the sounds that came to my ear.

T.—Letters then are the signs of what?

P.—Letters are the signs of sounds.

T.—I will pronounce the same three sounds more rapidly, uniting them more closely—*bud*. These sounds, so united, form a spoken word. Of what do you think when you hear the word *bud*?

P.—I think of a little round thing that grows to be a leafy branch or a flower.

T.—Did you see the thing when you were thinking of it?

P.—No.

T.—Then you must have had a picture of it in your mind. We call this mental picture an idea. What called up this idea?

P.—It was called up by the word *bud*, which I heard.

T.—A *spoken word* then is the sign of what?

P.—A spoken word is the sign of an idea.

T.—I will call up the same idea in another way. I will *write* three letters and unite them thus: *bud*. What do you see?

P.—I see the word *bud*.

T.—If we call the other word *bud* a *spoken word*, what shall we call this?

P.—This is a *written word*.

T.—If they stand for the same idea, how do they differ?

P.—I see this, and I heard that.

T.—You will observe that we have called attention to *four* different things; viz., the real *bud*; your *mental picture* of the bud, which we have called an *idea*; and the two words, which we have called signs of this idea, the one addressed to the ear, and the other to the eye.

If the pupil be brought to see these distinctions, it may aid him to observe more closely and express himself more clearly.

LESSON 2.

Teacher.—What did you learn in the previous Lesson?

Pupil.—I learned that a spoken word is composed of certain sounds, and that letters are signs of sounds, and that spoken and written words are the signs of ideas.

This question should be passed from one pupil to another till all of these answers are elicited.

All the written words in all the English books ever made, are formed of twenty-six letters, representing about forty sounds. These letters and these sounds make up what is called artificial language.

Of these twenty-six letters, **a, e, i, o, u**, and sometimes **w** and **y**, are called **vowels**, and the remainder are called **consonants**.

In order that you may understand what kind of sounds the vowels stand for, and what kinds the consonants represent, I will tell you something about the *human voice*.

The air breathed out from your lungs beats against two flat muscles, stretched like strings across the top of the windpipe, and causes them to vibrate. This vibrating makes sound. Take a thread, put one end between your teeth, hold the other in your fingers, draw it tight and strike it, and you will understand how voice is made.

If the voice thus produced comes out through the mouth held well open, a class of sounds is formed which we call *vowel* sounds.

But, if the voice is held back by your palate, tongue, teeth, or lips, *one* kind of *consonant* sounds is made. If the *breath* is driven out *without voice*, and is held back by these same parts of the mouth, the *other* kind of *consonant* sounds is formed. Ex. of both: *b, d, g; p, t, k*.

The teacher and pupils should practice on these sounds till the three kinds can easily be distinguished.

You are now prepared to understand what I mean when I say that the **vowels** are the **letters** which stand for the **open sounds of the voice**, and that the **consonants** are the **letters** which stand for the **sounds made by the obstructed voice and the obstructed breath**.

The teacher can here profitably spend a few minutes in showing how ideas may be communicated by *Natural Language*, the language of *sighs, groans, gestures* of the hands, *attitudes* of the body, *expressions* of the face, *tones* of the voice, etc. He can show that, in conversation, we sometimes couple this *Natural Language* of tone and gesture with our language of words, in order to make a stronger impression. Let the pupil be told that, if the passage contain feeling, he should do the same in *Reading* and *Declaiming*.

Let the following definitions be learned, and given at the next recitation.

DEFINITION.—*Artificial Language, or Language Proper,* consists of the spoken and written words used to communicate ideas and thoughts.

DEFINITION.—*English Grammar* is the science which teaches the forms, uses, and relations of the words of the English Language.

LESSON 3.

Let the pupils be required to tell what they learned in the previous Lessons.

Teacher.—When I pronounce the two words *star* and *bud*, thus: *star bud*, how many ideas, or mental pictures, do I call up to you?

Pupil.—Two.

T.—Do you see any connection between these ideas?

P.—No.

T.—When I utter the two words *bud* and *swelling*, thus: *bud swelling*, do you see any connection in the ideas they stand for?

P.—Yes, I imagine that I see a bud expanding, or growing larger.

T.—I will connect two words more closely, so as to express a thought: *Buds swell*. A thought has been formed in my mind when I say, *Buds swell*; and these two words, in which something is said of something else, express that thought, and make what we call a *sentence*. In the former expression, *bud swelling*, it is assumed, or taken for granted, that buds perform the act; in the latter, the swelling is asserted as a fact.

Leaves falling. Do these two words express two ideas merely associated, or do they express a thought?

P.—They express ideas merely associated.

T.—*Leaves fall.*

Same question.

P.—A thought.

T.—Why?

P.—Because, in these words, there is something *said* or *asserted* of leaves.

T.—When I say, *Falling leaves rustle*, does *falling* tell what is thought of leaves?

P.—No.

T.—What does *falling* do?

P.—It tells the *kind* of leaves you are thinking and speaking of.

T.—What word *does* tell what is thought of leaves?

P.—*Rustle*.

T.—You see then that in the thought there are two parts; something of which we think, and that which we think about it.

Let the pupils give other examples.

LESSON 4.

Commit to memory all definitions.

DEFINITION.—A *Sentence* is the expression of a thought in words.

Which of the following expressions contain words that have *no connection*, which contain words *merely associated*, and which are *sentences*?

- | | | |
|---------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Flowers bloom. | 12. Sugar graze. | 23. Birds chirp. |
| 2. Ice melts. | 13. Dew sparkles. | 24. Gentle cows. |
| - 3. Bloom ice. | 14. Hissing serpents. | 25. Eagles are soaring. |
| 4. Grass grows. | 15. Smoke curls. | 26. Bees ice. |
| 5. Brooks babble. | 16. Serpents hiss. | 27. Working bees. |
| 6. Babbling brooks. | 17. Smoke curling. | 28. Bees work. |
| - 7. Grass soar. | 18. Serpents sparkles. | 29. Crawling serpents. |
| 8. Doors open. | 19. Melting babble. | 30. Landscape piano. |
| 9. Open doors. | 20. Eagles soar. | 31. Serpents crawl. |
| 10. Cows graze. | 21. Birds chirping. | 32. Eagles clock. |
| 11. Curling smoke. | - 22. Bird are chirping. | 33. Serpents crawling. |

LESSON 5.**REVIEW QUESTIONS.**

Illustrate, by the use of *a*, *b*, and *p*, the difference between the *sounds* of letters and their *names*. Letters are the signs of what? What is an idea? A *spoken* word is the sign of what? A *written* word is the sign of what? How do they differ? To what four different things did we call attention in Lesson 1?

How are *vowel* sounds made? How are the two kinds of *consonant* sounds made? What are vowels? Name them. What are consonants? What is artificial language, or language proper? What do you understand by natural language? What is English grammar?

What three kinds of expressions are spoken of in Lessons 3 and 4? Give examples of each. What is a sentence?

**LESSON 6.****ANALYSIS.**

On the following sentences, let the pupils be exercised according to the model.

Model.—*Intemperance degrades.* Why is this a *sentence*? Ans.—Because it expresses a thought. Of what is something thought? Ans.—*Intemperance*. Which word tells what is thought? Ans.—*Degrades*.

- | | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Magnets attract. | 5. Sunbeams dance. | 9. Grass withers. |
| 2. Horses neigh. | 6. Heat expands. | 10. Sailors climb. |
| 3. Frogs leap. | 7. Sunlight gleams. | 11. Rabbits burrow. |
| 4. Cold contracts. | 8. Banners wave. | 12. Spring advances. |

You see that in these sentences there are two parts. The parts are the *Subject* and the *Predicate*.

DEFINITION.—The *Subject of a sentence* names that of which something is thought.

DEFINITION.—The *Predicate of a sentence* tells what is thought.

DEFINITION.—The *Analysis of a sentence* is the separation of it into its parts.

Analyze, according to the model, the following sentences.

Model.—*Stars twinkle.* This is a *sentence*, because it expresses a thought. *Stars* is the *subject*, because it names that of which something is thought; *twinkle* is the *predicate*, because it tells what is thought.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Plants droop. | 5. Rain falls. | 9. Boats capsize. |
| 2. Books help. | 6. Time flies. | 10. Water flows. |
| 3. Clouds float. | 7. Rowdies fight. | 11. Students learn. |
| 4. Exercise strengthens. | 8. Bread nourishes. | 12. Horses gallop. |

To the Teacher.—Before the close of this recitation, let the teacher prepare the pupils for the next Lesson. See "Hints for Oral Instruction" below.

LESSON 7.

ANALYSIS AND THE DIAGRAM.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—I will draw on the board a heavy, or shaded, line, and divide it into two parts, thus:



We will consider the first part as the sign of the *subject* of a sentence, and the second part as the sign of the *predicate* of a sentence.

Now, if I write a word over the first line, thus—(doing it)—you will understand that that word is the subject of a sentence. If I write a word over the second line, thus—you will understand that that word is the predicate of a sentence.

Planets | revolve

The whole class can see, by looking at the expression, that *planets revolve* is a sentence, that *planets* is the subject, and that *revolve* is the predicate.

These signs, or illustrations, made up of straight lines, we call **Diagrams**.

When we write the different parts of a sentence over the lines that stand for those parts, we say that we have *diagramed* the sentence.

DEFINITION.—A *Diagram* is a picture of the offices and relations of the different parts of a sentence.

Analyze and diagram the following sentences.

- | | | |
|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Waves dash. | 9. Nero fiddled. | 17. Morning dawns. |
| 2. Kings reign. | 10. Larks sing. | 18. Showers descended. |
| 3. Fruit ripens. | 11. Water ripples. | 19. Diamonds sparkle. |
| 4. Stars shine. | 12. Lambs frisk. | 20. Alexander conquered. |
| 5. Steel tarnishes. | 13. Lions roar. | 21. Jupiter thunders. |
| 6. Insects buzz. | 14. Tigers growl. | 22. Columbus sailed. |
| 7. Paul preached. | 15. Breezes sigh. | 23. Grammarians differ. |
| 8. Poets sing. | 16. Carthage fell. | 24. Cornwallis surrendered. |

LESSON 8.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

You have now learned to analyze sentences, that is, to separate them into their parts. You must next learn to put these parts together, that is, to *build sentences*.

We will find one part, and you must find the other and do the building.

To the Teacher.—Let some of the pupils write their sentences on the board, while others are reading theirs. Then let the work on the board be *corrected*.

Correct any expression that does not make *good sense*, or that asserts something not strictly true; for the pupil should early be taught to *think accurately*, as well as to write and speak grammatically.

Correct all mistakes in *spelling*, and in the use of *capital letters* and the *period*.

Call attention to the agreement in form of the predicate with the subject. See Notes, p. 167.

Insist on neatness. Collect the papers before the recitation closes.

CAPITAL LETTER—RULE.—The first word of every sentence must begin with a *capital letter*.

PERIOD—RULE.—A *period* must be placed after every sentence that simply affirms, denies, or expresses a command.

Construct sentences by supplying a *subject* to each of the following *predicates*.

Ask yourself the question, What swim, sink, hunt, etc.?

- | | | | |
|---------------|---------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. —— swim. | 7. —— climb. | 13. —— flashes. | 19. —— expand. |
| 2. —— sinks. | 8. —— creep. | 14. —— flutters. | 20. —— jump. |
| 3. —— hunt. | 9. —— run. | 15. —— paddle. | 21. —— hop. |
| 4. —— skate. | 10. —— walk. | 16. —— toil. | 22. —— bellow. |
| 5. —— jingle. | 11. —— snort. | 17. —— terrifies. | 23. —— burns. |
| 6. —— decay. | 12. —— kick. | 18. —— rages. | 24. —— evaporates. |

This exercise may profitably be extended by requiring the pupils to supply *several subjects* to each predicate.

LESSON 9.

SENTENCE-BUILDING—Continued.

Construct sentences by supplying a *predicate* to each of the following *subjects*.

Ask yourself the question, Artists do what?

- | | | |
|------------------|-------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Artists ——. | 13. Water ——. | 25. Storms ——. |
| 2. Sailors ——. | 14. Frost ——. | 26. Politicians ——. |
| 3. Tides ——. | 15. Man ——. | 27. Serpents ——. |
| 4. Whales ——. | 16. Blood ——. | 28. Chimneys ——. |
| 5. Gentlemen ——. | 17. Kings ——. | 29. Owls ——. |
| 6. Swine ——. | 18. Lilies ——. | 30. Rivers ——. |
| 7. Clouds ——. | 19. Roses ——. | 31. Nations ——. |
| 8. Girls ——. | 20. Wheels ——. | 32. Indians ——. |
| 9. Fruit ——. | 21. Waves ——. | 33. Grain ——. |
| 10. Powder ——. | 22. Dew ——. | 34. Rogues ——. |
| 11. Hail ——. | 23. Boys ——. | 35. Rome ——. |
| 12. Foxes ——. | 24. Volcanoes ——. | 36. Briars ——. |

This exercise may be extended by requiring the pupils to supply several predicates to each subject.

LESSON 10.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

Of what two parts does a sentence consist? What is the subject of a sentence? What is the predicate of a sentence? What is the analysis of a sentence?

What is a diagram? How do you diagram a sentence? What is the rule in Lesson 8, for capital letters? What rule for the period?

Impromptu Exercise.

Let the pupils "choose sides," as in a spelling match. Let the teacher select *predicates* from Lesson 8, and give them alternately to the pupils thus arranged. The first pupil prefixes to his word whatever suitable subjects he can think of, the teacher judging of their fitness and keeping the count. This pupil now rises and remains standing until some one else, on his side or the other, shall have prefixed to his word a greater number of apt subjects. The strife is to see who shall be standing at the close of the match, and which side shall have furnished the greater number of subjects. The exercise may be continued with the *subjects* of Lesson 9. Each pupil is to be limited to the same time —one or two minutes.

LESSON 11.

ANALYSIS.

The *predicate* sometimes contains *more than one word*.

Analyze and diagram according to the model.

Model.—*Socrates was poisoned.*

Socrates + was poisoned

This is a sentence, because it expresses a thought. *Socrates* is the subject, because —; *was poisoned* is the predicate, because* —.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 1. Napoleon was banished. | 13. Grammarians will differ. |
| 2. André was captured. | 14. Snow is falling. |
| 3. Money is circulated. | 15. Leaves are rustling. |
| 4. Columbus was imprisoned. | 16. Children will prattle. |
| 5. Acorns are sprouting. | 17. Crickets are chirping. |
| 6. Bells are tolled. | 18. Eclipses have been foretold. |
| 7. Summer has come. | 19. Storms may abate. |
| 8. Sentences may be analyzed. | 20. Deception may have been practiced. |
| 9. Clouds are reddening. | 21. Esau was hated. |
| 10. Air may be weighed. | 22. Treason should have been punished. |
| 11. Jehovah shall reign. | 23. Bees are humming. |
| 12. Corn is planted. | 24. Sodom might have been spared. |

LESSON 12.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

To the Teacher.—Continue oral and written exercises in agreement. See Notes, pp. 167, 168.

Prefix the little helping words in the *second column* to such of the more important words in the *third column* as with them will make complete predicates, and join these predicates to all subjects in the *first column* with which they will unite to make good sense.

1	2	3
Burgoynes	are	woven.
Henry Hudson	was	defeated.
Sparrows	can be	condensed.
Comets	is	inhaled.
Time	have been	worn.
Turbans	may be	slackened.
Lime	has been	wasted.
Steam	could have been	seen.
Air	must have been	deceived.
Carpets	were	quarreling.

* The word *because*—suggesting a reason—should be dropped from these “Models” whenever it may lead to mere mechanical repetition.

LESSON 13.

Point out the *subject* and the *predicate* of each sentence in Lessons 28, 31, 34.

Look first for the word that asserts, and then, by putting *who* or *what* before this *predicate*, the *subject* may easily be found.

To the Teacher.—Let this exercise be continued till the pupils can readily point out the subject and the predicate in easy simple sentences.

When this can be promptly done, the first and most important step in analysis will have been taken.

Most violations of the rules of concord come from a failure to recognize the relation of subject and predicate when these parts are transposed or are separated by other words. Such constructions should therefore receive special attention. See Notes, pp. 168, 169.

Introduce the class to the Parts of Speech before the close of this recitation. See "Hints for Oral Instruction."

LESSON 14.

CLASSES OF WORDS.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—By the assistance of the few hints here given, the ingenious teacher may render this usually dry subject interesting and highly attractive. By questioning the pupil as to what he has seen and heard, his interest may be excited and his curiosity awakened.

Suppose that we make an imaginary excursion to some pleasant field or grove, where we may study the habits, the plumage, and the songs of the little birds.

If we attempt to make the acquaintance of every little feathered singer we meet, we shall never get to the end of our pleasant task; but we find that some resemble one another in size, shape, color, habits, and song. These we associate together and call them sparrows.

We find others differing essentially from the sparrows, but resembling one another. These we call robins.

We thus find that, although we were unable to become acquainted with each *individual* bird, they all belong to a few *classes*, with which we may soon become familiar.

It is so with the words of our language. There are many thousand words, all of which belong to **eight classes**.

These classes of words are called **Parts of Speech**.

We classify birds according to their form, color, etc., but we group words into *classes*, called **Parts of Speech**, with respect to their use in the *sentence*.

We find that many words are names. These we put in one class and call them **Nouns**.

Each pupil may give the name of something in the room; the name of a distinguished person; a name that may be applied to a class of persons; the name of an animal; the name of a place; the name of a river; the name of a mountain; the name of something which we cannot see or touch, but of which we can think; as, *beauty, mind*.

Remind the pupils frequently that these *names* are all *nouns*.

NOUNS.

DEFINITION.—A Noun is the name of anything.

Write in columns, headed *nouns*, the names of domestic animals, of garden vegetables, of flowers, of trees, of articles sold in a dry goods store, and of things that cannot be seen or touched; as, *virtue, time, life*.

Write and arrange, according to the following model, the names of things that can *float, fly, walk, work, sit, or sing*.

Nouns.

Cork	}
Clouds	
Wood	
Ships	
Boys	floats or float.

Such expressions as *Cork floats* are *sentences*, and the nouns *cork, ship*, etc., are the subjects. You will find that *every subject is a noun or some word or words used for a noun*.

Be prepared to analyze and parse the sentences which you

have made—*naming the class to which a word belongs is the first step in parsing.*

Model for Analysis.—This is a sentence, because —; *cork* is the subject, because —; *floats* is the predicate, because —.

Parsing.—*Cork* is a noun, because it is the name of a thing—the bark of a tree.

LESSON 15.

Select and write all the nouns in the sentences given in Lessons 28, 31, 34.

Tell why they are nouns.

In writing the nouns, observe the following rule.

CAPITAL LETTER—RULE.—Every proper or individual name must begin with a capital letter.

To the Teacher.—See Notes, pp. 171–173.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

What is treated of in Lesson 11? With respect to what, did we classify words in Lesson 14? What are such classes called? Can you illustrate this classification? What are all names? What is a noun? What is the first step in parsing? What is the rule given in Lesson 15?

LESSON 16.

VERBS.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—We propose to introduce you now to another class of words. (The teacher may here refer to the talk about birds.)

You have learned that one very large class of words consists of *names of things*. There is another very important class of words used to tell what these things *do*, or used to *express* their *existence*.

When I say, *Plants grow*, is *grow* the name of anything? **P.**—No. **T.**—What does it do? **P.**—It tells what plants *do*. It expresses *action*.

T.—When I say, *God is*, what does *is* express? **P.**—It expresses *existence*, or *being*.

T.—When I say, *George sleeps*, *sleeps* expresses *being* and something more; it tells the condition, or *state*, in which George is, or exists, that is, it expresses *state of being*.

All the words that assert *action*, *being*, or *state of being*, we call **Verbs**.

Let the teacher write nouns on the board, and require the pupils to give all the words of which they can think, telling what the things named can do. They may be arranged thus:—

Noun. *Verbs.*

Plants <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle; margin-left: 10px;"> <div style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 10px; margin-bottom: 5px;"> <i>grow,</i> </div> <div style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 10px; margin-bottom: 5px;"> <i>droop,</i> </div> <div style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 10px; margin-bottom: 5px;"> <i>decay,</i> </div> <div style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 10px; margin-bottom: 5px;"> <i>flourish,</i> </div> <div style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 10px; margin-bottom: 5px;"> <i>revive.</i> </div> </div>	<i>Each pupil may give a verb that expresses an action of the body; as, <i>weep, sing</i>; an action of the mind; as, <i>study, love</i>; one that expresses being or state of being.</i>
---	---

DEFINITION.—A *Verb* is a word that asserts action, being, or state of being.

The office of the verb in all its forms, except two (the participle and the infinitive, see Lessons 48 and 49), is to *assert*. This it does whether the sentence affirms, denies, or asks a question.

To the Teacher.—In the exercises of this and the next two Lessons, let the pupils note the agreement of the verb with its subject. See Notes, pp. 167-169.

Supply, to each of the following nouns, as many appropriate verbs as you can think of.

Let some express *being* or *state of being*.

Water —. Wind —. Pens —. Parrots —.
Vines —. Farmers —. Trees —. Ministers —.

One verb may consist of *two*, *three*, or *four* words; as, *is singing*, *will be sung*, *might have been sung*.

Form *verbs* by combining the words in columns 2 and 3, and add these verbs to all the *nouns* in column 1 with which they appropriately combine.

1	2	3
Laws	has been	published.
Clouds	have been	paid.
Food	will be	restored.
Health	should have been	preserved.
Taxes	may be	collected.
Books	are	obeyed.

The examples you have written are sentences; the *nouns* are *subjects*, and the *verbs* are *predicates*.

As verbs are the only words that assert, *every predicate must be a verb, or must contain a verb*.

Be prepared to *analyze and parse five of the sentences* that you have written.

Model.—*Laws are obeyed.* Diagram and analyze as in Lesson 11.

Parsing.—*Laws* is a noun, because —; *are obeyed* is a verb, because it asserts action.

LESSON 17.

Select and write all the verbs in the sentences given in Lessons 28, 31, 34, and tell why they are verbs.

LESSON 18.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

From the following nouns and verbs, build as many sentences as possible, taking care that every one makes good sense.

Poems, was conquered, lambs, rebellion, stars, forests, shone, were seen, were written, treason, patriots, meteors, fought, were discovered, frisk, Cain, have fallen, fled, stream, have crumbled, day, ages, deer, are flickering, are bounding, gleamed, voices, lamps, rays, were heard, are gathering, time, death, friends, is coming, will come.

To the Teacher.—Before this recitation closes, let the teacher open up the subject of Lesson 19. See "Hints for Oral Instruction."

LESSON 19.

PRONOUNS.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—We propose to introduce you now to the *third part of speech*. T.—If I should ask who whispered, and some boy should promptly confess, what would he say? P.—*I* whispered. T.—Would he mention his own name? P.—No. T.—What word would he use instead? P.—*I*.

T.—Suppose that I had *spoken to* that boy and had accused him of whispering, how should I have addressed him without mentioning his name? P.—*You* whispered. T.—What word would be used instead of the name of the boy *to whom* I spoke? P.—*You*.

T.—Suppose that, without using his name, I had told you what he did, what should I have said? P.—*He* whispered. T.—What word would have been used instead of the name of the boy *of whom* I spoke? P.—*He*.

(Repeat these questions and suppose the pupil to be a girl.)

T.—If I should tell that boy to close his book, when his book was already closed, what would he say without mentioning the word book? P.—*It* is closed.

T.—If I should accuse several of you of whispering, and one should speak for himself and for the others whispering with him, what would he say? We whispered.

T.—Suppose that a boy should inform me that all of the boys on that seat had whispered, what would he say? P.—*They* whispered.

I, you, he, she, it, we, and *they* are not names, but they are used instead of names. We call such words **Pronouns**.

DEFINITION.—A *Pronoun* is a word used for a noun.

CAPITAL LETTERS—RULE.—The words *I* and *O* should be written in capital letters.

Analysis and Parsing.

Model.—*You will be rewarded.*

Oral Analysis.—This is a sentence, because —; *you* is the subject, because —; *will be rewarded* is the predicate, because —.

Parsing.—*You* is a *pronoun*, because it stands for the name of the person spoken to; *will be rewarded* is a verb, because —.

- | | | |
|---------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. We think. | 4. I study. | 7. He was punished. |
| 2. She prattles. | 5. You have been seen. | 8. They are conquered. |
| 3. We have recited. | 6. It has been decided. | 9. Thou art adored. |

Compose nine similar sentences, using a pronoun for the subject of each, and diagram them.

To the Teacher.—Call special attention to the agreement of the verb with *I* and *you*. See Notes, p. 168.

Before this recitation closes, explain “Modified Subject.” See “Hints for Oral Instruction.”



LESSON 20.

MODIFIED SUBJECT.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—The *Subject* and the *Predicate* may be considered as the foundation on which every sentence is built. No sentence can be constructed without them.

You have already learned that these parts *alone*, sometimes make a complete structure; but we are about to show you that they are often used as the foundation of a structure, which is completed by adding *other* parts.

I hold in my hand several pieces of metal, with letters and other characters stamped on them. What do you say I have in my hand?

P.—Money. **T.**—Yes. What other word can you use? **P.**—*Coin*.

T.—Yes. I will write on the board this sentence: *Coin is stamped*.

The subject *coin* is a general name for all such pieces of metal. I

will write the word *the* before this sentence. *The coin is stamped.* I have now made an assertion about one particular coin, so the meaning of the subject is limited by joining the word *the*.

I can again limit the meaning of the subject by putting the word *a* before it. The assertion is now about one coin, but no particular one. I point to the piece near me and say, *This coin is stamped.* I point to the one farther from me and say, *That coin is stamped.*

When words are joined to the subject to limit its meaning, we say that the subject is *modified*.

The words *the*, *a*, *this*, and *that* modify the subject by limiting the word to one coin, or to one particular coin.

We can modify the subject by joining some word which will tell what *kind* of coin is meant.

Here is a coin dated 18—. We can say, *The new coin is stamped.* Here the word *new* tells what *kind* of coin is meant. What other words can I use to modify *coin*? **P.**—*Beautiful, bright, new, round, silver.* **T.**—These words *beautiful, bright, new, round*, and *silver* modify the subject by telling the qualities of the coin.

We call the words *the, beautiful, etc.*, **Modifiers**.

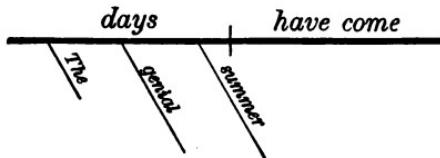
DEFINITION.—A **Modifier** is a word or group of words joined to some part of the sentence to qualify or limit the meaning.

The **Subject** with its **Modifiers** is called the **Modified Subject**.

ANALYSIS.

Analyze and diagram the following sentences.

Model.—*The genial summer days have come.*



Explanation of the Diagram.—Examine the diagram carefully, and see what it pictures to you.

The two lines shaded alike and placed uppermost stand for the *subject* and the *predicate*, and show you that these are of the *same rank*, and are the *principal parts* of the sentence.

The lighter lines, placed under and joined to the subject line, stand for the *modifiers*, the less important parts, and show you what is modified.

Oral Analysis.—This is a sentence, because —; *days* is the subject, because —; *have come* is the predicate, because —; *The, genial, and summer* are *modifiers* of the subject, because they are words joined to the subject to modify its meaning. *The genial summer days* is the *modified subject*.

1. The angry wind is howling.
2. The dead leaves fall.
3. The dark clouds lower.
4. The tall elm bends.
5. All men must die.
6. The lusty bellows roared.
7. A boding silence reigned.
8. Little Arthur was murdered.
9. The mighty oak was uprooted.
10. The fragile violet was crushed.
11. The beautiful marble statue was carved.
12. The turbid torrent roared.
13. The affrighted shepherds fled.
14. The vivid lightning flashes.
15. Those elegant Etruscan vases are broken.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

What is a verb? Give examples of verbs of action. Of being. Of state of being. May a verb consist of more than one word? Illustrate. Verbs are the only words that do what? What must every predicate contain?

What part of speech is spoken of in Lesson 19? What is a pronoun? Give the rule for writing the words *I* and *O*.

What is the foundation on which every sentence is built? May the subject be modified? What is a modifier? What is the modified subject?

LESSON 21.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

We have here prepared the foundations of sentences which you are to complete by writing two or more suitable modifiers to each subject. Be careful to choose and arrange your material so as to make a neat and appropriate structure.

Model. _____ eminence was reached.

That lofty eminence was reached.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. — speaker was applauded. | 6. — houses are built. |
| 2. — difficulties were overcome. | 7. — soldiers perished. |
| 3. — leaf trembles. | 8. — opinions prevailed. |
| 4. — accident happened. | 9. — leader fell. |
| 5. — books should be read. | 10. — task is completed. |

For other subjects and predicates, the teacher is referred to Lessons 7 and 11.

Build sentences by prefixing *modified subjects* to the following predicates.

1. — frolic. 3. — are dashing. 5. — escaped. 7. — flourished.
2. — crawl. 4. — was caught. 6. — chatter. 8. — whistles.

Build, on each of the following subjects, three sentences similar to those in the model.

Model. _____ sun _____.

The bright sun is shining.

The glorious sun has risen.

The unclouded sun is sinking.

1. — snow —. 2. — dew —. 3. — wind —. 4. — landscape —.

To the Teacher.—Please take notice that the next Lesson begins with "Hints for Oral Instruction."

LESSON 22.

ADJECTIVES.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—You are now prepared to consider the *fourth part of speech*. Those words that are added to the subject to modify its meaning are called **Adjectives**.

Some grammarians have formed a separate class of the little words *the*, and *an* or *a*, calling them *articles*.

I will write the word *boys* on the board, and you may name adjectives that will appropriately modify it. As you give them, I will write these adjectives in a column.

Adjectives.

small	}	boys.
large		
white		
black		
straight		
crooked		
five		
some		

all

What words here modify *boys* by adding the idea of size? What by adding the idea of color? What by adding the idea of form? What by adding the idea of number?

What are such words called? Why?

Let the teacher name familiar objects and require the pupils to join appropriate adjectives to the names till their stock is exhausted.

DEFINITION.—An *Adjective* is a word used to modify a noun or a pronoun.

Analysis and Parsing.

Model.—*A fearful storm was raging.* Diagram and analyze as in Lesson 20.

Written Parsing.

<i>Nouns.</i>	<i>Pronouns.</i>	<i>Adjectives.</i>	<i>Verbs.</i>
storm	—	A fearful	was raging.

Oral Parsing.—*A* is an *adjective*, because it is joined to the noun

storm to modify its meaning; *fearful* is an *adjective*, because —; *storm* is a noun, because —; *was raging* is a verb, because —.

1. The rosy morn advances.
2. The humble boon was obtained.
3. An unyielding firmness was displayed.
4. The whole earth smiles.
5. Several subsequent voyages were made.
6. That burly mastiff must be secured.
7. The slender greyhound was released.
8. The cold November rain is falling.
9. That valuable English watch has been sold.
10. I alone have escaped.
11. Both positions can be defended.
12. All such discussions should have been avoided.
13. That dilapidated old wooden building has fallen.

To the Teacher.—See Notes, pp. 173, 174.

LESSON 23.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

Prefix five adjectives to each of the following nouns.

Shrubs, wilderness, beggar, cattle, cloud.

Write ten sentences with modified subjects, using in each two or more of the following adjectives.

A, an, the, heroic, one, all, many, every, either, first, tenth, frugal, great, good, wise, honest, immense, square, circular, oblong, oval, mild, virtuous, universal, sweet, careless, fragrant.

Write five sentences with modified subjects, each of which shall contain one of the following words as a subject.

Chimney, hay, coach, robber, horizon.

An and *a* are forms of the same word, once spelled *an*, and meaning *one*. After losing something of this force, *an* was still used before vowels and consonants alike; as, *an eagle*, *an ball*, *an hair*, *an use*. Still later, and for the sake of ease in speaking, the word came to have the two forms mentioned above; and *an* was retained before letters having vowel sounds, but it dropped its *n* and became *a* before letters having consonant sounds. This is the present usage.

CORRECT THESE ERRORS.

A apple; a obedient child; an brickbat; an busy boy.

CORRECT THESE ERRORS.

A heir; a hour; a honor.

Notice, the first letter of these words is *silent*.

CORRECT THESE ERRORS.

An unit; an utensil; an university; an ewe; an ewer; an union; an use; an history; an one.

Unit begins with the sound of the consonant *y*; and *one*, with that of *w*.

Some authors still use *an* before such words as *historical*, *use*, *one*.



LESSON 24.

MODIFIED PREDICATES.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—I will now show you how the *predicate* of a sentence may be modified.

The ship sails gracefully. What word is here joined to *sails* to tell the *manner* of sailing? **P.—Gracefully.**

T.—The ship sails immediately. What word is here joined to *sails* to tell the *time* of sailing? **P.—Immediately.**

T.—*The ship sails homeward.* What word is here joined to *sails* to tell the *direction* of sailing? P.—*Homeward.*

T.—These words *gracefully*, *immediately*, and *homeward* are modifiers of the predicate. In the first sentence, *sails gracefully* is the **Modified Predicate**.

Let the following modifiers be written on the board as the pupil suggests them.

The ship sails	instantly.	Which words indicate the time of sailing? Which, the place? Which, the manner?
	soon.	
	daily.	
	hither.	
	hence.	
	there.	
	rapidly.	
	smoothly.	

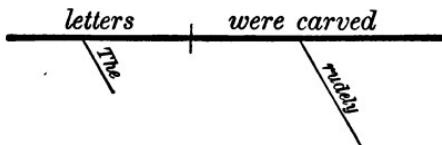
The teacher may suggest predicates, and require the pupils to find as many appropriate modifiers as they can.

The Predicate with its modifiers is called the **Modified Predicate**.

Analysis and Parsing.

Analyze and diagram the following sentences, and parse the nouns, pronouns, verbs, and adjectives.

Model.—*The letters were rudely carved.*



Written Parsing.—See *Model*, Lesson 22.

Oral Analysis.—This is a sentence, because —; *letters* is the subject, because —; *were carved* is the predicate, because —; *The* is a

modifier of the subject, because —; *rudely* is a modifier of the predicate, because —; *The letters* is the modified subject, *were rudely carved* is the modified predicate.

1. He spoke eloquently.
 2. She chattered incessantly.
 3. They searched everywhere.
 4. I shall know presently.
 5. The bobolink sings joyously.
 6. The crowd cheered heartily.
 7. A great victory was finally won.
 8. Threatening clouds are moving slowly.
 9. The deafening waves dash angrily.
 10. These questions may be settled peaceably.
 11. The wounded soldier fought bravely.
 12. The ranks were quickly broken.
 13. The south wind blows softly.
 14. Times will surely change.
 15. An hour stole on.
-

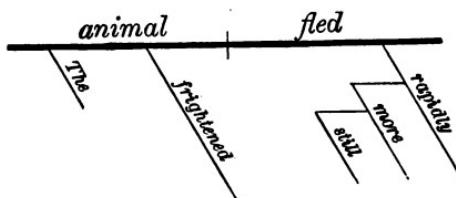
LESSON 25.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

ONE MODIFIER JOINED TO ANOTHER.

Analyze and diagram the following sentences, and parse the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and verbs.

Model.—*The frightened animal fled still more rapidly.*



Explanation of the Diagram.—Notice that the three lines forming this group all slant the same way to show that each stands for a modifying word. The line standing for the principal word of the group is joined to the predicate line. The end of each of the other two lines is broken, and turned to touch its principal at an angle.

Oral Analysis.—This is a sentence, because —; *animal* is the subject, because —; *fled* is the predicate, because —; *The* and *frightened* are modifiers of the subject, because —; *still more rapidly* is a modifier of the predicate, because it is a group of words joined to it to limit its meaning; *rapidly* is the principal word of the group; *more* modifies *rapidly*, and *still* modifies *more*; *The frightened animal* is the modified subject; *fled still more rapidly* is the modified predicate.

1. The crocus flowers very early.
2. A violet bed is budding near.
3. The Quakers were most shamefully persecuted.
4. Perhaps he will return.
5. We laughed very heartily.
6. The yellow poplar leaves floated down.
7. The wind sighs so mournfully.
8. Few men have ever fought so stubbornly.
9. The debt will probably be paid.
10. The visitor will soon be here.
11. That humane project was quite generously sustained.
12. A perfectly innocent man was very cruelly persecuted.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

What is an adjective? What are the words *an* or *a*, and *the* called by some grammarians? When is *a* used, and when *an*? Give examples of their misuse.

What is the modified predicate? Give an example. Give an example of one modifier joined to another.

LESSON 26.

Select your subjects from Lesson 9, and construct twenty sentences having modified subjects and modified predicates.

Impromptu Exercise.

Select sentences from Lessons 6, 7, and 11, and conduct the exercise as directed in Lesson 10. Let the strife be to see who can supply the greatest number of modifiers to the subject and to the predicate. The teacher can vary this exercise.

LESSON 27.

ADVERBS.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—You have learned, in the preceding Lessons, that the meaning of the predicate may be limited by modifiers, and that one modifier may be joined to another. Words used to modify the predicate of a sentence and those used to modify modifiers belong to one class, or one *part of speech*, and are called **Adverbs**.

T.—*She decided too hastily.* What word tells how she decided?

P.—*Hastily.* T.—What word tells how hastily? P.—*Too.* T.—What then are the words *too* and *hastily*? P.—Adverbs.

T.—*Too much time has been wasted.* What word modifies *much* by telling how much? P.—*Too.* T.—What *part of speech* is *much*? P.—An adjective. T.—What then is *too*? P.—An adverb.

T.—Why is *too* in the first sentence an adverb? Why is *too* in the second sentence an adverb? Why is *hastily* an adverb?

Let the teacher use the following and similar examples, and continue the questions. *He thinks so. So much time has been wasted.*

Let the teacher give verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, and require the pupils to modify them by appropriate adverbs.

DEFINITION.—*An Adverb* is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

Analysis and Parsing.

Analyze, diagram, and parse the following sentences.

Model.—*We have been very agreeably disappointed.* **Diagram** as in Lesson 25.

For **Written Parsing**, use *Model*, Lesson 22, adding a column for adverbs.

Oral Parsing.—*We* is a pronoun, because — ; *have been disappointed* is a verb, because — ; *very* is an *adverb*, because it is joined to the adverb *agreeably* to tell how agreeably ; *agreeably* is an *adverb*, because it is joined to the verb *have been disappointed* to indicate manner.

1. The plough-boy plods homeward.
2. The water gushed forth.
3. Too much time was wasted.
4. She decided too hastily.
5. You should listen more attentively.
6. More difficult sentences must be built.
7. An intensely painful operation was performed.
8. The patient suffered intensely.
9. That story was peculiarly told.
10. A peculiarly interesting story was told.
11. An extravagantly high price was paid.
12. That lady dresses extravagantly.

The pupil will notice that, in some of the examples above, the same adverb modifies an adjective in one sentence and an adverb in another, and that, in other examples, an adjective and a verb are modified by the same word. You may learn from this why such modifiers are grouped into one class.

LESSON 28.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES FOR REVIEW.

1. You must diagram neatly.
 2. The sheaves are nearly gathered.
 3. The wheat is duly garnered.
 4. The fairies were called together.
 5. The birds chirp merrily.
 6. This reckless adventurer has returned.
 7. The wild woods rang.
 8. White fleecy clouds are floating above.
 9. Those severe laws have been repealed.
 10. A republican government was established.
 11. An unusually large crop had just been harvested.
 12. She had been waiting quite patiently.
 13. A season so extremely warm had never before been known.
 14. So brave a deed *cannot be too warmly commended.
-

LESSON 29.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES FOR REVIEW.

Build sentences containing the following adverbs.

Hurriedly, solemnly, lightly, well, how, somewhere, abroad, forever, seldom, exceedingly.

Using the following subjects and predicates as foundations, build six sentences having modified subjects and modified predicates, two of which shall contain adverbs modifying

* *Can be commended* is the verb, and *not* is an adverb.

ing adjectives; two, adverbs modifying adverbs; and two, adverbs modifying verbs.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. — boat glides —. | 4. — elephant was captured —. |
| 2. — cloud is rising —. | 5. — streams flow —. |
| 3. — breezes are blowing —. | 6. — spring has opened —. |

We here give you, in classes, the material out of which you are to build five sentences with modified subjects and modified predicates.

Select the subject and the predicate first.

Nouns and

<i>Pronouns.</i>	<i>Verbs.</i>	<i>Adjectives.</i>	<i>Adverbs.</i>
branch	was running	large, that	lustily
coach	were played	both, the	downward
they	cried	all, an	very
we	is growing	several, a	rapidly
games	cheered	amusing	not, loudly, then

LESSON 30.

ERRORS FOR CORRECTION.

To the Teacher.—We here suggest additional work in composition, with particular reference to the choice and position of adjectives. See Notes, pp. 175, 176.

Caution.—When two or more adjectives are used with a noun, care must be taken in their arrangement. If there is any difference in their relative importance, place nearest the noun the one that is most intimately connected with it.

To the Teacher.—We have in mind here those numerous cases where one adjective modifies the noun, and the second modifies the noun as limited by the first. *All ripe apples are picked.* Here *ripe* modifies *apples*, but *all* modifies *apples* limited by *ripe*. Not *all apples* are *picked*, but only *all* that are *ripe*.

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING ERRORS OF POSITION.

A wooden pretty bowl stood on the table.

The blue beautiful sky is cloudless.
A young industrious man was hired.
The new marble large house was sold.

Caution.—When the adjectives are of the *same* rank, place them where they will sound the best. This will usually be in the order of their length—the longest last.

CORRECT THESE ERRORS.

An entertaining and fluent speaker followed. An enthusiastic, noisy, large crowd was addressed.

Caution.—Do not use the pronoun *them* for the adjective *those*.

CORRECT THESE ERRORS.

Them books are nicely bound. Them two sentences should be corrected.

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING MISCELLANEOUS ERRORS.

arouse, o romans

hear, o israel

it is i

i may be Mistaken

you Have frequently been warned

some Very savage beasts have been Tamed

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

What is an adverb? Give an example of an adverb modifying an adjective; one modifying a verb; one modifying an adverb. Why are such expressions as *a wooden pretty bowl* faulty? Why is *an enthusiastic, noisy, large crowd* faulty? Why is *them books* wrong? Why is *i may be Mistaken* wrong? Why is *hear, o israel*, wrong?

Study the Review Questions given in previous Lessons.

To the Teacher.—Let the pupils write from dictation short sentences illustrating what has been taught.

LESSON 31.

PHRASES INTRODUCED BY PREPOSITIONS.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—In the preceding Lessons, you have learned that several words may be grouped together and used as one modifier. In the examples given, the principal word is joined directly to the subject or to the predicate, and this word is modified by another word. In this Lesson also groups of words are used as modifiers, but these words are not united with one another, or with the word which the group modifies, just as they are in the preceding Lessons.

I will write on the board this sentence: *De Soto marched into Florida.*

T.—What tells *where* De Soto marched? P.—*Into Florida.* T.—What is the principal word of the group? P.—*Florida.* T.—Is *Florida* joined directly to the predicate, as *rapidly* was in Lesson 25? P.—No. T.—What little word comes in to unite the modifier to *marched*? P.—*Into.* T.—Does *Florida* alone, tell where he marched? P.—No. T.—Does *into* alone, tell where he marched? P.—No.

T.—These groups of related words are called **Phrases**. Let the teacher draw on the board the diagram of the sentence above.

Phrases of the form illustrated in this diagram are the most common, and they perform a very important function in our language.

Let the teacher frequently call attention to the fact that all the words of a phrase are *taken together* to perform *one distinct office*.

A phrase modifying the subject is equivalent to an adjective, and, frequently, may be changed into one. *The dew of the morning has passed away.* What word may be used for the phrase *of the morning*? P.—*Morning.* T.—Yes. The *morning* dew has passed away.

A phrase modifying the predicate is equivalent to an adverb, and, frequently, may be changed into one. *We will go to that place.* What word may be used for the phrase, *to that place*? P.—*There.* T.—Yes. We will go *there*.

Change the phrases in these sentences:—

A citizen of America was insulted.

We walked toward home.

Let the teacher write on the board the following words, and require the pupils to add to each, one or more words to complete a phrase, and

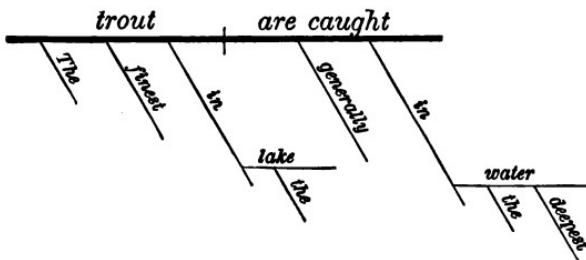
then to construct a sentence in which the phrase may be properly employed: *To, from, by, at, on, with, in, into, over*.

DEFINITION.—A *Phrase* is a group of words denoting related ideas but not expressing a thought.

Analysis and Parsing.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs.

Model.—*The finest trout in the lake are generally caught in the deepest water.*



Explanation of the Diagram.—You will notice that the diagram of the *phrase* is made up of a slanting line, standing for the introductory and connecting word, and a horizontal line, representing the principal word. Under the latter, are placed the little slanting lines standing for the modifiers of the principal word. Here and elsewhere all modifiers are joined to their principal words by slanting lines.

Oral Analysis.—This is a sentence, because —; *trout* is the subject, because —; *are caught* is the predicate, because —; the words *The* and *finest*, and the phrase, *in the lake*, are modifiers of the subject, because —; the word *generally* and the phrase, *in the deepest water*, are modifiers of the predicate, because — ; *in* introduces the first phrase, and *lake* is the principal word ; *in* introduces the second phrase, and *water* is the principal word; *the* and *deepest* are modifiers of *water*; *The finest trout in the lake* is the modified subject, and *are generally caught in the deepest water* is the modified predicate.

1. The gorilla lives in Africa.
 2. It seldom rains in Egypt.
 3. The Pilgrims landed at Plymouth.
 4. The wet grass sparkled in the light.
 5. The little brook ran swiftly under the bridge.
 6. Burgoyne surrendered at Saratoga.
 7. The steeples of the village pierced through the dense fog.
 8. The gloom of winter settled down on everything.
 9. A gentle breeze blows from the south.
 10. The temple of Solomon was destroyed.
 11. The top of the mountain is covered with snow.
 12. The second Continental Congress convened at Philadelphia.
-

LESSON 32.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

Build sentences, employing the following phrases as modifiers.

To Europe, of oak, from Albany, at the station, through the fields, for vacation, among the Indians, of the United States.

Supply to the following predicates subjects modified by phrases.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|
| — is situated on the Thames. | — was received. |
| — has arrived. | — has just been completed. |
| — was destroyed by an earthquake. | — may be enjoyed. |

Supply to the following subjects predicates modified by phrases.

- | | | |
|--------------|--------------|-----------------|
| Iron —. | The Bible —. | Paul —. |
| The trees —. | Sugar —. | Strawberries —. |
| Squirrels —. | Cheese —. | The mountain —. |

Write five sentences, each of which shall contain one or more phrases used as modifiers.

LESSON 33.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

Re-write the following sentences, changing the italicized words into equivalent phrases.

Model.—A *golden* image was made.

An image of *gold* was made.

You will notice that the adjective *golden* was placed before the subject, but, when changed to a phrase, it followed the subject.

1. The book was *carefully* read.
2. The old soldiers fought *courageously*.
3. A group of children were strolling *homeward*.
4. No season of life should be spent *idly*.
5. The *English* ambassador has just arrived.
6. That *generous* act was liberally rewarded.

Change the following adjectives and adverbs into equivalent phrases, and employ the phrases in sentences of your own building.

Wooden, penniless, eastward, somewhere, here, evening, everywhere, yonder, joyfully, wintry.

Make a sentence out of the words in each line below.

Boat, waves, glides, the, the, over.

He, Sunday, church, goes, the, on, to.

Year, night, is dying, the, the, in.

Qualities, Charlemagne, vices, were alloyed, the, great, of, with.

Indians, America, intemperance, are thinned, the, out, of, by.

LESSON 34.

PREPOSITIONS.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—In the preceding Lessons, the little words that were placed before nouns, thus forming phrases, belong to a class of words called **Prepositions**. You noticed that these words, which you have now learned to call prepositions, served to introduce phrases. The preposition shows the relation of the *idea* expressed by the principal word of the phrase to that of the word which the phrase modifies. It serves also to connect these words.

In the sentence, *The squirrel ran up a tree*, what word shows the relation of the act of running, to the tree? Ans. *Up*.

Other words may be used to express different relations. Repeat, nine times, the sentence above given, supplying, in the place of *up*, each of the following prepositions: *Around, behind, down, into, over, through, to, under, from*.

Let this exercise be continued, using such sentences as, *The man went into the house; The ship sailed toward the bay*.

DEFINITION.—A **Preposition** is a word that introduces a phrase modifier, and shows the relation, in sense, of its principal word to the word modified.

Analysis and Parsing.

Model.—*Flowers preach to us.*

For **Analysis** and **Diagram**, see Lesson 31.

For **Written Parsing**, see Lesson 22. Add the needed columns.

Oral Parsing.—*Flowers* is a noun, because —; *preach* is a verb, because —; *to* is a **preposition**, because it shows the relation, in sense, between *us* and *preach*; *us* is a pronoun, because it is used instead of the name of the speaker and the names of those for whom he speaks.

1. The golden lines of sunset glow.
2. A smiling landscape lay before us.

3. Columbus was born at Genoa.
4. The forces of Hannibal were routed by Scipio.
5. The capital of New York is on the Hudson.
6. The ships sail over the boisterous sea.
7. All names of the Deity should begin with capital letters.
8. Air is composed chiefly of two invisible gases.
9. The greater portion of South America lies between the tropics.
10. The laurels of the warrior must at all times be dyed in blood.
11. The first word of every entire sentence should begin with a capital letter.
12. The subject of a sentence is generally placed before the predicate.

Impromptu Exercise.

(The teacher may find it profitable to make a separate lesson of this exercise.)

Let the teacher write on the board a subject and a predicate that will admit of many modifiers. The pupils are to expand the sentence into as many separate sentences as possible, each containing one apt phrase modifier. The competition is to see who can build the most and the best sentences in a given time. The teacher gathers up the slates and reads the work aloud, or has the pupils exchange slates and read it themselves.

LESSON 35.

COMPOUND SUBJECT AND COMPOUND PREDICATE.

When two or more subjects united by a connecting word have the same predicate, they form a *Compound Subject*; and, when two or more predicates connected in like manner have the same subject, they form a *Compound Predicate*.

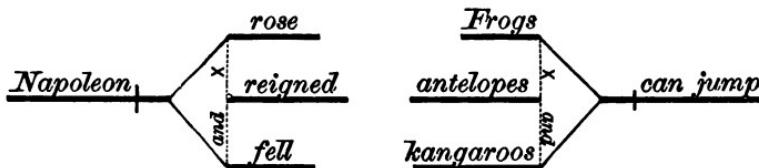
In the sentence, *Birds and bees can fly*, the two words *birds* and *bees*, connected by *and*, have the same predicate; the same action is asserted of both birds and bees. In the

sentence, *Leaves fade and fall*, two assertions are made of the same things. In the first sentence, *birds* and *bees* form the *compound subject*; and, in the second, *fade* and *fall* form the *compound predicate*.

Analyze and parse the following sentences.

Models.—*Napoleon rose, reigned, and fell.*

Frogs, antelopes, and kangaroos can jump.



Explanation of the Diagram.—The short line following the subject line represents the entire predicate, and is supposed to be continued in the three horizontal lines that follow, each of which represents one of the parts of the *compound predicate*. These three lines are united by dotted lines, which stand for the connecting words. The X denotes that an *and* is understood.

Study this explanation carefully, and you will understand the other diagram.

Oral Analysis of the first sentence.

This is a sentence, because — ; *Napoleon* is the subject, because — ; *rose, reigned, and fell* form the *compound predicate*, because they belong in common to the same subject, and say something about Napoleon. *And* connects *reigned* and *fell*.

1. The Rhine and the Rhone rise in Switzerland.
2. Time and tide wait for no man.
3. Washington and Lafayette fought for American Independence.
4. Wild birds shrieked, and fluttered on the ground.
5. The mob raged and roared.
6. The seasons came and went.
7. Pride, poverty, and fashion cannot live in the same house.

-
8. The tables of stone were cast to the ground and broken.
 9. Silver or gold will be received in payment.
 10. Days, months, years, and ages will circle away.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

What is a phrase? A phrase modifying a subject is equivalent to what? Illustrate. A phrase modifying a predicate is equivalent to what? Illustrate.

What are prepositions? What do you understand by a compound subject? Illustrate. What do you understand by a compound predicate? Illustrate.

LESSON 36.

CONJUNCTIONS AND INTERJECTIONS.

The words *and* and *or*, used in the preceding Lesson to connect the nouns and the verbs, belong to a class of words called *Conjunctions*.

Conjunctions may also connect *words* used as *modifiers*; as,
A daring *but* foolish feat was performed.

They may connect *phrases*; as,
We will go to Saratoga *and* to Niagara.

They may connect *clauses*, that is, expressions that, standing alone, would be sentences; as,

He must increase, *but* I must decrease.

DEFINITION.—A *Conjunction* is a word used to connect words, phrases, or clauses.

The *Interjection* is the eighth and last *part of speech*. Interjections are mere exclamations, and are without grammatical relation to any other word in the sentence.

DEFINITION.—An *Interjection* is a word used to express strong or sudden feeling.

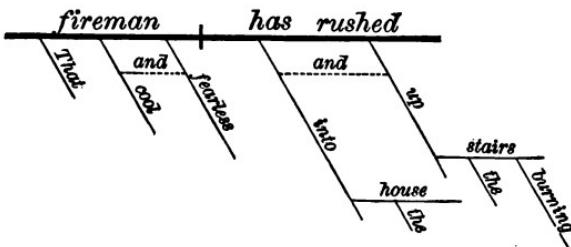
Examples :—

Bravo ! hurrah! pish! hush! ha, ha! alas! hail! lo! pshaw!

Analyze and parse the following sentences.

Model.—*Hurrah ! that cool and fearless fireman has rushed into the house and up the burning stairs.*

Hurrah



Explanation of the Diagram.—The line representing the interjection is not connected with the diagram. Notice the dotted lines, one standing for the *and* which connects the two *word* modifiers; the other, for the *and* connecting the two *phrase* modifiers.

Written Parsing.

N.	Pro.	Adj.	Vb.	Adv.	Prep.	Conj.	Int.
fireman			has rushed		into	and	hurrah
house		the			up	and	
stairs		that					

Oral Parsing of the conjunction and the interjection.

The two *ands* are *conjunctions*, because they *connect*. The first connects two *word* modifiers; the second, two *phrase* modifiers. *Hurrah* is an *interjection*, because it expresses a burst of sudden feeling.

1. The small but courageous band was finally overpowered.
2. Lightning and electricity were identified by Franklin.
3. A complete success or an entire failure was anticipated.
4. Good men and bad men are found in all communities.

-
5. Vapors rise from the ocean, and fall upon the land.
 6. The Revolutionary war began at Lexington, and ended at Yorktown.
 7. Alas! all hope has fled.
 8. Ah! I am surprised at the news.
 9. Oh! we shall certainly drown.
 10. Pshaw! you are dreaming.
 11. Hurrah! the field is won.
-

LESSON 37.

PUNCTUATION AND CAPITAL LETTERS.

COMMA—RULE.—A *phrase* out of its natural order,* or not closely connected with the word it modifies, should be set off by the comma.

Punctuate the following sentences.

Model.—*In the desert of Sahara*, oases are scattered.
Upon the platform 'twixt eleven and twelve I'll visit you.
At the bottom of the garden a sparkling rivulet runs.
The house on September 15 was struck by lightning.
On the top of Mt. Washington the wind blows furiously.

COMMA—RULE.—Words or phrases connected by conjunctions are separated from each other by the comma unless all of the conjunctions are expressed.

PUNCTUATE THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES.

Model.—Cæsar came, saw, and conquered.
Cæsar came and saw and conquered.

He travelled in *England*, in *Scotland*, and in *Ireland*.

(The comma is used in the first sentence, because a conjunction is omitted; but not in the second, as all the conjunctions are expressed.)

A brave prudent and honorable man was chosen.

Augustus Tiberius Nero and Vespasian were Roman emperors.

* A phrase in its natural order follows the word it modifies.

Through rainy weather across a wild country over muddy roads after a long ride we came to the end of our journey.

PERIOD and **CAPITAL LETTER—RULE.**—*Abbreviations generally begin with capital letters and are always followed by the period.*

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING ERRORS.

Model.—*Mr., Esq., N. Y., P. M.*

gen, a m, mrs, no, u s a, n e, eng, p o, rev, prof, dr, gram, capt, col, co, va, conn.

EXCLAMATION POINT—RULE.—*All exclamatory expressions must be followed by the exclamation point.*

PUNCTUATE THE FOLLOWING EXPRESSIONS.

Model.—*Ah! Oh! Zounds! Stop pinching!*

Pshaw, whew, alas, ho Tom, halloo Sir, good-bye, welcome.

LESSON 38.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

To the Teacher.—Call attention to the agreement of verbs with compound subjects. Require the pupils to justify the verb-forms in Lesson 36 and elsewhere. See Notes, pp. 169-171.

Write *predicates* for the following *compound subjects*.

Snow and hail; leaves and branches; a soldier or a sailor; London and Paris.

Write *compound predicates* for the following *subjects*.

The sun; water; fish; steamboats; soap; farmers; fences; clothes.

Write *subjects* for the following *compound predicates*.

Live, feel, and grow; judges and rewards; owes and pays; inhale and exhale; expand and contract; flutters and alights; fly, buzz, and sting; restrain or punish.

Write *compound subjects* before the following *predicates*.

May be seen; roar; will be appointed; have flown; has been recommended.

Write *compound predicates* after the following *compound subjects*.

Boys, frogs, and horses ; wood, coal, and peat; Maine and New Hampshire ; Concord, Lexington, and Bunker Hill; pins, tacks, and needles.

Write *compound subjects* before the following *compound predicates*.

Throb and ache ; were tried, condemned, and hanged; eat, sleep, and dress.

Choose your own material and write five sentences, each having a *compound subject* and a *compound predicate*.



LESSON 39.

COMPLEMENTS.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—When we say, *The sun gives*, we express no complete thought. The subject *sun* is complete, but the predicate *gives* does not make a complete assertion. When we say, *The sun gives light*, we do utter a complete thought. The predicate *gives* is completed by the word *light*. Whatever fills out, or *completes*, we call a **Complement**. We will therefore call *light* the complement of the predicate. As *light* completes the predicate by naming the thing acted upon, we call it the **Object Complement**.

Expressions like the following may be written on the board, and by a series of questions the pupils may be made to dwell upon these facts till they are thoroughly understood.

The officer arrested —; the boy found —;
Charles saw —; coopers make —.

Besides these verbs requiring object complements, there are others that do not make complete sense without the aid of a complement of another kind.

A complete predicate does the asserting and expresses what is asserted. In the sentence, *Armies march*, *march* is a complete predicate, for it does the asserting and expresses what is asserted; viz., *marching*. In the phrase, *armies marching*, *marching* expresses the same act as that denoted by *march*, but it *asserts* nothing. In the sentence, *Chalk is white*, *is* does the asserting, but it does not express what is asserted. We do not wish to assert merely that chalk *is* or *exists*. What we wish to assert of chalk, is the quality expressed by the adjective *white*. As *white* expresses a quality or attribute, we may call it an **Attribute Complement**.

Using expressions like the following, let the facts given above be drawn from the class by means of questions.

Grass growing ; grass grows; green grass; grass is green.

DEFINITION.—The *Object Complement of a sentence* completes the predicate, and names that which receives the act.

DEFINITION.—The *Attribute Complement of a sentence* completes the predicate and belongs to the subject.

The complement with all its modifiers is called the **Modified Complement**.

Analysis and Parsing.

Model.—*Fulton invented the first steamboat.*



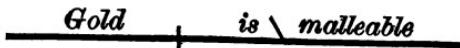
Explanation of the Diagram.—You will see that the line standing for the *object complement* is a continuation of the predicate line, and that the little vertical line only touches this without cutting it.

Oral Analysis.—*Fulton* and *invented*, as before. *Steamboat* is the *object complement*, because it completes the predicate, and names that which receives the act. *The* and *first*, as before. *The first steamboat* is the *modified complement*.

1. Cæsar crossed the Rubicon.
2. Morse invented the telegraph.

3. Ericsson built the Monitor.
4. Hume wrote a history.
5. Morn purples the east.
6. Antony beheaded Cicero.

Model.—*Gold is malleable.*



In this diagram, the line standing for the *attribute complement*, like the *object line*, is a continuation of the predicate line; but notice the difference in the little mark separating the *incomplete** predicate from the complement.

Oral Analysis.—*Gold* and *is*, as before.

Malleable is the *attribute complement*, because it completes the predicate, and expresses a quality belonging to gold.

7. Pure water is tasteless.
8. The hare is timid.
9. Fawns are graceful.
10. This peach is delicious.
11. He was extremely prodigal.
12. The valley of the Mississippi is very fertile.

To the Teacher.—See Notes, pp. 187, 188.

LESSON 40.

ERRORS IN THE USE OF MODIFIERS.

Caution.—Place *adverbs* where there can be no doubt as to the words they modify.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED.

- I only bring forward a few things.
- Hath the Lord only † spoken by Moses?
- We merely speak of numbers.
- The Chinese chiefly live upon rice.

* Hereafter we shall call the *verb* the *predicate*, but, when followed by a complement, it must be regarded as an *incomplete predicate*.

† Adverbs sometimes modify phrases.

Caution.—In placing the adverb, regard must be had to the sound of the sentence.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED.

We always should do our duty.
The times have changed surely.
The work will be never finished.
He must have certainly been sick.

Caution.—Adverbs must not be used for adjectives.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED.

I feel badly.
Marble feels coldly.
She looks nicely.
It was sold cheaply.
It appears still more plainly.
That sounds harshly.
I arrived at home safely.

Caution.—Adjectives must not be used for adverbs.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED.

The bells ring merry.
The curtain hangs graceful.
That is a decided weak point.
Speak no coarser than usual.
These are the words nearest connected.
Talk slow and distinct.
She is a remarkable pretty girl.

To the Teacher.—For additional exercises in distinguishing adjectives from adverbs, see Notes, p. 185.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

What is a conjunction? What is an interjection?
What is the position of the interjection in the diagram?
What are the two rules in Lesson 37, for the comma?

What is the rule for the period and the capital letter?

What is the rule for the exclamation point?

What is an object complement? What is an attribute complement?

Illustrate both.

What are the cautions for the position of the adverb? What are the cautions for the use of the adverb and the adjective?

LESSON 41.

ERRORS IN THE POSITION AND USE OF MODIFIERS.

Caution.—*Phrase modifiers* should be placed as near as may be to the words they modify.

To the Teacher.—For composition exercises with particular reference to arrangement, see Notes, pp. 176–180.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED.

A fellow was arrested with short hair.

I saw a man digging a well with a Roman nose.

He died and went to his rest in New York.

Wanted—A room by two gentlemen thirty feet long and twenty feet wide.

Some garments were made for the family of thick material.

The vessel was beautifully painted with a tall mast.

I perceived that it had been scoured with half an eye.

A house was built by a mason of brown stone.

A pearl was found by a sailor in a shell.

Punctuate these sentences when corrected.

Caution.—Care must be taken to select the *right preposition*.

To the Teacher.—For the preposition to be used, consult the Unabridged Dictionaries.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED.

They halted with the river on their backs.

The cat jumped on the chair.

He fell onto the floor.
He went in the house.
He divides his property between his four sons.
He died for thirst.
This is different to that.
Two thieves divided the booty among themselves.
I am angry at him.

Caution.—Do not use two negative, or denying, words so that one shall contradict the other, unless you wish to affirm.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED.

I haven't no umbrella.

Correct by dropping either the adjective *no* or the adverb *not*; as, I have *no* umbrella, or I have *not* an umbrella.

I didn't say nothing.
I can't do this in no way.
No other emperor was so wise nor powerful.
Nothing can never be annihilated.

LESSON 42.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

1. Brutus stabbed Cæsar.
2. Man is an animal.
3. Washington captured Cornwallis.
4. Wellington defeated Napoleon at Waterloo.
5. Balboa discovered the Pacific ocean.
6. Vulcan was a blacksmith.
7. The summer has been very rainy.
8. Columbus made four voyages to the New World.
9. The moon reflects the light of the sun.
10. The first vice-president of the United States was John Adams.
11. Roger Williams was the founder of Rhode Island.
12. Harvey discovered the circulation of blood.

-
13. Diamonds are combustible.
 14. Napoleon died a prisoner, at St. Helena.
 15. In 1619 the first ship-load of slaves was landed at Jamestown.

The pupil will notice that *animal*, in sentence No. 2, is an *attribute complement*, though it is not an adjective expressing a quality belonging to man, but a *noun* denoting his *class*. *Nouns* then may be *attribute complements*.

The pupil will notice also that some of the *object* and *attribute complements* above have phrase modifiers.

LESSON 43.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

Using the following predicates, build sentences having subjects, predicates, and object complements with or without modifiers.

— climb — ; — hunt — ; — command — ; — attacked — ; — pursued — ; — shall receive — ; — have seen — ; — love — .

Change the following expressions into sentences by *asserting* the qualities here *assumed*. Use these verbs for predicates :

Is, were, appears, may be, became, was, have been, should have been, is becoming, are.

Model.—*Heavy* gold. Gold *is heavy*.

Green fields ; sweet oranges ; interesting story ; brilliant sunrise ; severe punishment ; playful kittens ; warm weather ; pitiful sight ; sour grapes ; amusing anecdote.

Prefix to the following nouns several adjectives expressing

assumed qualities, and then make complete sentences by asserting the same qualities.

Model.—	white brittle soft	chalk.	Chalk is white. Chalk is brittle. Chalk is soft.
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Gold, pears, pens, lead, water, moon, vase, rock, lakes, summer, ocean, valley.

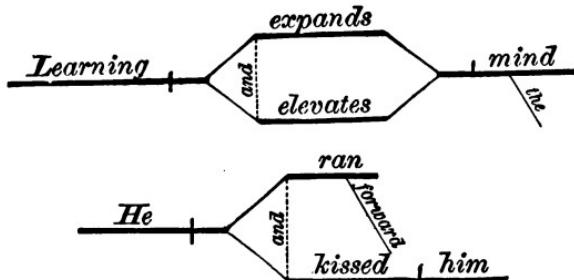
Find your own material, and build two sentences having object complements, and two having attribute complements.

LESSON 44.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Models.—



Explanation of the Diagram.—In the first diagram, the two lines standing for the two parts of the predicate are brought together, and are followed by the complement line. This shows that the two verbs are completed by the *same object*.

In the second diagram, one of the predicate lines is followed by a complement line; but the two predicate lines are not united, for the two verbs have not a common object.

1. Learning expands and elevates the mind.
2. He ran forward and kissed him.

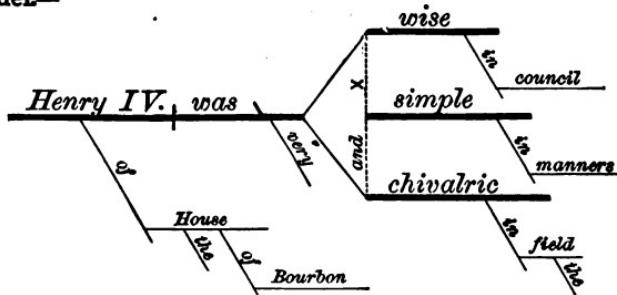
3. The earth and the moon are planets.
 4. The Swiss scenery is picturesque.
 5. Jefferson was chosen the third president of the United States.
 6. Nathan Hale died a martyr to liberty.
 7. The man stood speechless.
 8. Labor disgraces no man.
 9. Aristotle and Plato were the most distinguished philosophers of antiquity.
 10. Josephus wrote a history of the Jews.
 11. This man seems the leader of the whole party.
 12. The attribute complement completes the predicate and belongs to the subject.
 13. Lord Cornwallis became governor of Bengal after his disastrous defeat.
 14. The multitude ran before him and strewed branches in the way.
 15. Peter Minuits traded with the Indians, and bought the whole island of Manhattan for twenty-four dollars.
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LESSON 45.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Model—



Explanation of the Diagram.—In this diagram the complement line separates into three parts, to each of which is joined a phrase diagram.

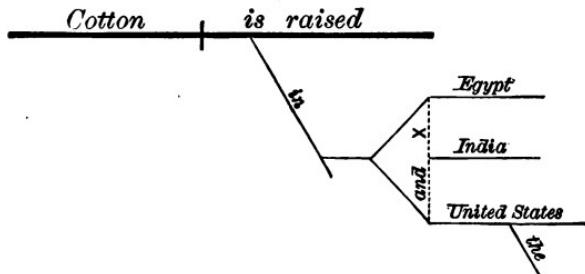
The line standing for the word-modifier is joined to that part of the complement line which represents the *entire* attribute complement.

1. Henry IV., of the House of Bourbon, was very wise in council, simple in manners, and chivalric in the field.
2. Cæsar defeated Pompey at Pharsalia.
3. The diamond is the most valuable gem.
4. The Greeks took Troy by stratagem.
5. The submarine cable unites the continent of America and the Old World.
6. The Gauls joined the army of Hannibal.
7. Columbus crossed the Atlantic with ninety men, and landed at San Salvador.
8. Vulcan made arms for Achilles.
9. Cromwell gained at Naseby a most decisive victory over the Royalists.
10. Columbus was a native of Genoa.
11. God tempers the wind to the shorn lamb.
12. The morning hour has gold in its mouth.
13. The mill of the gods grinds late, but grinds to powder.
14. A young farmer recently bought a yoke of oxen, six cows, and a horse.
15. America has furnished to the world tobacco, the potato, and Indian corn.

LESSON 46.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

MISCELLANEOUS.



Explanation of the Diagram.—In this diagram the line representing the principal part of the phrase separates into three lines. This shows that the principal part of the phrase is compound. *Egypt, India, and United States* are all introduced by the same preposition *in*, and have the same relation to *is raised*.

1. Cotton is raised in Egypt, India, and the United States.
2. The navy of Hiram brought gold from Ophir.
3. The career of Cromwell was short.
4. Most mountain ranges run parallel with the coast.
5. Now swiftly glides the bonny boat.
6. An able but dishonest judge presided.
7. The queen bee lays eggs in cells of three different sizes.
8. Umbrellas were introduced into England from China.
9. The first permanent English settlement in America was made at Jamestown, in 1607.
10. The spirit of true religion is social, kind, and cheerful.
11. The summits of the Alps are covered with perpetual snow.
12. The months of July and August were named after Julius Cæsar and Augustus Cæsar.
13. All the kings of Egypt are called, in Scripture, Pharaoh.
14. The bamboo furnishes to the natives of China, shade, food, houses, weapons, and clothing.

LESSON 47.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

Supply *attribute complements* to the following expressions.
(See Caution, Lesson 40.)

The marble feels _____. Mary looks _____. The weather continues _____. The apple tastes _____. That lady appears _____. The sky grows _____. The leaves of roses are _____. The undertaking was pronounced _____.

Write a subject and a predicate to each of the following nouns taken as *attribute complements*.

Model.—*Soldier.*—That old man has been a *soldier*.

Plant, insect, mineral, vegetable, liquid, gas, solid, historian, poet, artist, traveler, emperor.

Using the following nouns as subjects, build sentences each having a simple predicate and two or more *object complements*.

Congress, storm, education, king, tiger, hunter, Arnold, shoemakers, lawyers, merchant.

Build three sentences on each of the following subjects, two of which shall contain *object complements*, and the third, an *attribute complement*.

Model.—*Sun.*—The *sun* gives *light*.

The *sun* warms the *earth*.

The *sun* is a luminous *body*.

Moon, oak, fire, whiskey.

LESSON 48.

SUBJECT OR COMPLEMENT MODIFIED BY A PRINCIPLE.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—You have learned, in the preceding Lessons, that a *quality* may be *assumed* as belonging to a thing; as, *white chalk*, or that it may be *asserted* of it; as, *Chalk is white*. An *action*, also, may be *assumed* as belonging to something; as, Peter *turning*, or it may be *asserted*; as, Peter *turned*. In the expression, *Peter, turning, said*, what word expresses an action as *assumed*, and which *asserts* an action? Each pupil may give an example of an action asserted and of an action assumed; as, *Corn grows*, *corn growing*; *geese gabble*; *geese gabbling*.

This form of the verb, which merely *assumes* the act, being, or state, is called the **Participle**.

When the words *growing* and *gabbling* are placed before the nouns,

thus: *growing corn, gabbling geese*, they tell simply the kind of corn and the kind of geese, and are therefore *adjectives*.

When *the* or some other adjective is placed before these words, and a preposition after them, thus: *The growing of the corn, the gabbling of the geese*, they are simply the *nouns* of actions, and are therefore *nouns*.

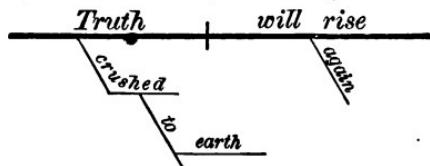
Let each pupil give an example of a verb asserting an action, and change it to express:—

1st, An *assumed* action; 2d, A permanent *quality*; 3d, The *name* of an action.

Participles may be completed by *objects* and *attributes*.

Analysis and Parsing.

Model.—*Truth, crushed to earth, will rise again.*



Explanation of the Diagram.—In this diagram, the line standing for the principal word of the participial phrase is broken; one part slants, and the other is horizontal. This shows that the participle *crushed* is used like an adjective to modify *Truth*, and yet retains the nature of a verb, expressing an action received by truth.

Oral Analysis.—This is a sentence, because —; *Truth* is the subject, because —; *will rise* is the predicate, because —; the phrase, *crushed to earth*, is a modifier of the Subj., because —; *crushed* introduces the phrase and is the principal word in it; the phrase *to earth* is a modifier of *crushed*; *to* introduces it, and *earth* is the principal word in it; *again* is a modifier of the Pred., because —. *Truth crushed to earth* is the modified subject, *will rise again* is the modified predicate.

Parsing.—*Crushed* is the form of the verb called *participle*, because the action expressed by it is merely *assumed*.

1. The mirth of Addison is genial, imparting a mild glow of thought.
2. The general, riding to the front, led the attack.

3. The balloon, shooting swiftly into the clouds, was soon lost to sight.
4. Wealth acquired dishonestly will prove a curse.
5. The sun, rising, dispelled the mists.
6. The thief, being detected, surrendered to the officer.
7. They boarded the vessel lying in the harbor.
8. The territory claimed by the Dutch was called New Netherlands.
- 9. Washington, having crossed the Delaware, attacked the Hessians stationed at Trenton.
- 10. Burgoyne, having been surrounded at Saratoga, surrendered to Gen. Gates.
- 11. Pocahontas was married to a young Englishman named John Rolfe.
12. A shrug of the shoulders, translated into words, loses much force.
13. The armies of England, mustered for the battles of Europe, do not awaken sincere admiration.

(Note that the participle, like the predicate verb, may consist of two or more words.)

(Note, too, that the participle, like the adjective, may belong to a *noun complement*.)

LESSON 49.

THE INFINITIVE PHRASE.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—There is another form of the verb which, like the participle, cannot be the predicate of a sentence, for it cannot assert; as, She went out *to see* a friend; *To lie* is a disgrace. (As this form of the verb expresses the action, being, or state in a general manner, without limiting it directly to a subject, it is called an **Infinitive**, which means *without limit*.) The infinitive generally follows *to*; as, *to walk, to sleep*.

Let each pupil give an infinitive.

The infinitive and the preposition *to* constitute a phrase, which may be employed in several ways.

T.—*I have a duty to perform.* The infinitive phrase modifies what?

P.—The noun *duty*. **T.**—It then performs the office of what? **P.**—Of an adjective modifier.

T.—*I come to hear*. The infinitive phrase modifies what? **P.**—The verb *come*. **T.**—What office then does it perform? **P.**—Of an adverb modifier.

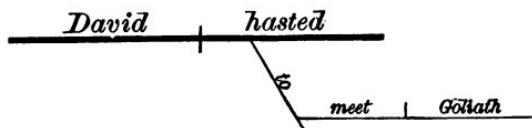
T.—*To lie is base*. What is base? **P.**—To lie. **T.**—*He attempted to speak*. What did he attempt? **P.**—To speak. **T.**—*To lie* is a subject, and *to speak* is an object. What part of speech is used as subject and object? **P.**—The noun.

T.—The Infinitive phrase is used as an adjective, an adverb, and a noun.

Infinitives may be completed by *objects* and *attributes*.

Analysis and Parsing.

Model.—*David hasted to meet Goliath*.



Analysis of the Infinitive Phrase.—*To* introduces the phrase; *meet*, completed by the object *Goliath*, is the principal part.

Parsing of the Phrase.—*To* is a preposition, because — ; *meet* is a verb, because — ; *Goliath* is a noun, because — .

1. I come not here to talk.
2. I rejoice to hear it.
3. A desire to excel leads to eminence.
4. Dr. Franklin was sent to France to solicit aid for the colonies.
5. To retreat was impossible.

(*To* is here used merely to introduce the infinitive phrase.)



Explanation of the Diagram.—As this phrase subject cannot, in its

proper form, be written on the subject line, it is placed above, and, by means of a support, the phrase diagram is made to rest on the subject line. The *phrase complement* may be diagramed in a similar way, and made to rest on the complement line.

6. The hands refuse to labor.
 7. To live is not all of life.
 8. The Puritans desired to obtain religious freedom.
 9. The Romans, having conquered the world, were unable to conquer themselves.
 10. Narvaez sailed from Cuba to conquer Florida.
 11. Some savages of America and Africa love to wear rings in the nose.
 12. Andrew Jackson, elected to succeed J. Q. Adams, was inaugurated in 1829.
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LESSON 50.

POSITION AND PUNCTUATION OF THE PARTICIPIAL PHRASE.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED. (See Caution 1, Lesson 41.)

Punctuate as you correct. (See Lesson 37.)

A house was built for a clergyman having seven gables.

The old man struck the saucy boy raising a gold-headed cane.

We saw a marble bust of Sir W. Scott entering the vestibule.

Here is news from a neighbor boiled down.

I found a cent walking over the bridge.

Balboa discovered the Pacific ocean climbing to the top of a mountain.

Punctuate the following exercises.

Cradled in the camp Napoleon was the darling of the army.

Having approved of the plan the king put it into execution.

Satan incensed with indignation stood unterrified.

My friend seeing me in need offered his services.

James being weary with his journey sat down on the wall.

The owl hid in the tree hooted through the night.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

Give the caution in Lesson 41, relating to the position of the phrase modifier. That relating to the choice of prepositions. That relating to the double negative. Give examples of errors. Can a noun be an attribute complement? Illustrate. What do you understand by a participle? Into what may some participles be changed? Illustrate. What offices does the infinitive phrase perform? Illustrate them. What preposition does the infinitive generally follow?

LESSON 51.**REVIEW.**

MISCELLANEOUS ERRORS FOR CORRECTION. (See Cautions in Lessons 30, 40, and 41.)

There never was such another man.
He was an old venerable patriarch.

John has a cadaverous, hungry, and lean look.
He was a well-proportioned, fine fellow.

Pass me them potatoes.

Put your trust not in money.
We have often occasion for thanksgiving,

Now this is to be done how?
Nothing can justify ever profanity.

To continually study is impossible.

(An adverb is seldom placed between the preposition *to* and the infinitive.)

Mary likes to tastefully dress.
Learn to carefully choose your words.

She looks queerly.
Give me a soon and direct answer.

The post stood firmly.
The eagle flies high.
The orange tastes sweetly.
I feel tolerable well.
The branch breaks easy.
Thistles grow rapid.
The eagle flies swift.
This is a miserable poor pen.

A wealthy gentleman will adopt a little boy with a small family.
A gentleman called from Africa to pay his compliments.

Water consists in oxygen and hydrogen.
He went out attended with a servant.
I have a dislike to such tricksters.
We have no prejudice to foreigners.
She don't know nothing about it.
Father wouldn't give me none.
He hasn't been sick neither.
I won't have no more nohow.

To the Teacher.—Let the reason be given for every correction.

LESSON 52.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

Build sentences in which the following participles shall be used as modifiers.

Being fatigued; laughing; being amused; having been elected; running; having been running.

Expand each of the following sentences into three sentences, using the *participial form* of the verb as a *participle*, in the first; the same form as an *adjective*, in the second; and as a *noun*, in the third.

Model.—The stream *flows*. The stream, *flowing* gently, crept through the meadow. The *flowing* stream slipped away to the sea. The *flowing* of the stream caused a low murmur.

The stream flows. The sun rises. Insects hum. The birds sing. The wind whistles. The bells are ringing. The tide ebbs.

Form *infinitive phrases* from the following verbs, and use these phrases as *adjectives*, *adverbs*, and *nouns*, in sentences of your own building.

Smoke, dance, burn, eat, lie, try.

To the Teacher.—For exercises to distinguish the participle from the predicate verb, see Notes, pp. 185, 186.

LESSON 53.

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS AS MODIFIERS.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—In the sentence, *The robin's eggs are blue*, the noun *robin's* does what? **P.**—It tells what or whose eggs are blue. **T.**—What word names the things owned or possessed? **P.**—*Eggs*. **T.**—What word names the owner or possessor? **P.**—*Robin's*.

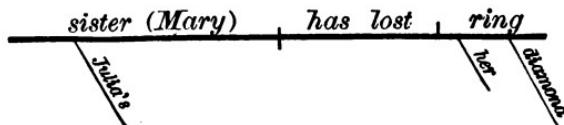
T.—The noun *robin's* is here used as a *modifier*. You see that this word, which I have written on the board, is the word *robin* with a little mark ('') called an apostrophe, and the letter *s* added. These are added to denote possession.

In the sentence, *Webster, the statesman, was born in New Hampshire*, the noun *statesman* modifies the subject *Webster* by explaining what or which Webster is meant. Both words name the same person.

Let the pupils give examples of each of these two kinds of **Noun Modifiers**—the **Possessive** and the **Explanatory**.

Analysis and Parsing.

Model.—*Julia's sister Mary has lost her diamond ring.*



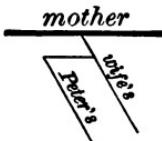
Explanation of the Diagram.—*Mary* is written on the subject line,

because *Mary* and *sister* both name the same person, but the word *Mary* is inclosed within marks of parenthesis to show that *sister* is the proper grammatical subject.

In oral analysis, call *Julia's* and *Mary* modifiers of the subject, *sister*, because *Julia's* tells whose sister, and *Mary* explains *sister* by adding another name of the same person. *Her* is a modifier of the object, because it tells whose ring is meant.

Julia's sister Mary is the modified subject, the predicate is unmodified, and *her diamond ring* is the modified object complement.

1. The planet Jupiter has four moons.
- 2. The Emperor Nero was a cruel tyrant.
3. Peter's wife's mother lay sick of a fever.



4. An ostrich outruns an Arab's horse.
- 5. His pretty little nephew Arthur had the best claim to the throne.
6. Milton, the great English poet, became blind.
7. Caesar gave his daughter Julia in marriage to Pompey.
- 8. London, the capital of England, is the largest and richest city in the world.
9. Joseph, Jacob's favorite son, was sold by his brethren to the Ishmaelites.
10. Alexander the Great* was educated under the celebrated philosopher Aristotle.
11. Friends tie their purses with a spider's thread.
12. Caesar married Cornelia, the daughter of Cinna.
13. His fate, alas! was deplorable.
14. Love rules his kingdom without a sword.

* *Alexander the Great* may be taken as one name, or *Great* may be called an explanatory modifier of *Alexander*.

LESSON 54.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

Nouns and pronouns denoting possession may generally be changed to equivalent phrases ; as, *Arnold's treason* = *the treason of Arnold*. Here the preposition *of* indicates *possession*, the same relation expressed by the apostrophe (') and *s*. Change the following possessive nouns to equivalent phrases, and the phrases indicating possession to possessive nouns, and then expand the expressions into complete sentences.

Model.—The *earth's surface*. The surface *of the earth* is made up of land and water.

The earth's surface; Solomon's temple; England's Queen; Washington's Farewell Address; Dr. Kane's Explorations; Peter's wife's mother; George's friend's father; Shakespeare's plays; Noah's dove; the diameter of the earth; the daughter of Jephthah; the invasion of Burgoyne; the voyage of Cabot; the Armada of Philip; the attraction of the earth; the light of the moon.

Find for the things mentioned below, *other* names which shall describe or explain them. Add such names to these nouns, and then expand the expressions into complete sentences.

Model.—*Ink*.—*Ink, a dark fluid*, is used in writing.

Observe the following rule.

COMMA—RULE.—An *Explanatory Modifier*, when it does not restrict the modified term or combine closely with it, is set off by the comma.

To the Teacher.—See Notes, pp. 180, 181.

New York, rain, paper, the monkey, the robin, tea, Abraham Lincoln, Alexander Hamilton, world, peninsula, Cuba, Shakespeare.

Write three sentences, each of which shall contain a noun

or pronoun denoting possession, and a noun or pronoun used to explain.

To the Teacher.—For additional exercises in the use of possessive modifiers, see Notes, pp. 186, 187.

LESSON 55.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES IN REVIEW.

- 1. The toad spends the winter in a dormant state.
 - 2. Pride in dress or in beauty betrays a weak mind.
 - 3. The city of London is situated on the river Thames.
 - 4. Napoleon Bonaparte was born in 1769, on an island in the Mediterranean.
 - 5. Men's opinions vary with their interests.
 - 6. Ammonia is found in the sap of trees, and in the juices of all vegetables.
 - 7. Earth sends up her perpetual hymn of praise to the Creator.
 - 8. Having once been deceived, I never trusted him again.
 - 9. Aesop, the author of Aesop's Fables, was a slave.
 - 10. Hope comes with smiles to cheer the hour of pain.
 - 11. Clouds are collections of vapors in the air.
 - 12. To relieve the wretched was his pride.
 - 13. Greece, the most noted country of antiquity, scarcely exceeded in size the half of the state of New York.
-

LESSON 56.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES IN REVIEW—CONTINUED.

- 1. We are never too old to learn.
- 2. Civility is the result of good nature and good sense.
- 3. The right of the people to instruct their representatives is generally admitted.

4. The immense quantity of matter in the Universe presents a most striking display of Almighty power.
 5. Virtue, diligence, and industry, joined with good temper and prudence, must ever be the surest means of prosperity.
 6. The people called Quakers were a source of much trouble to the Puritans.
 7. The Mayflower brought to America * one hundred and one men, women, and children.
 8. Edward Wingfield, an avaricious and unprincipled man, was the first president of the Jamestown colony.
 9. John Cabot and his son Sebastian, sailing under a commission from Henry VII. of England, discovered the continent of America.
 10. True worth is modest and retiring.
 11. Jonah, the prophet, preached to the inhabitants of Nineveh.
-

LESSON 57.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

THE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—A word-modifier may sometimes be expanded into a phrase or into an expression that asserts.

T.—*A wise man will be honored.* Expand *wise* into a phrase, and give me the sentence. P.—*A man of wisdom will be honored.* T.—Expand *wise* into an expression that asserts, join this to *man*, as a modifier, and then give me the entire sentence. P.—*A man who is wise will be honored.*

T.—You see that the same quality may be expressed in three ways—*A wise man*, *A man of wisdom*, *A man who is wise*.

Let the pupils give similar examples.

T.—In the sentence, *A man who is wise will be honored*, the word *who* stands for what? P.—For the noun *man*. T.—Then what part of speech is it? P.—A pronoun.

* *One hundred and one* may be taken as *one* adjective.

T.—Put the noun *man* in the place of the pronoun *who*, and then give me the sentence. P.—*A man, man is wise, will be honored.*

T.—I will repeat your sentence, changing the order of the words—*A man will be honored. Man is wise.* Is the last sentence now joined to the first as a modifier, or are they two separate sentences? P.—They are two separate sentences.

T.—Then you see that the pronoun *who* not only stands for the noun *man*, but it connects the modifying expression, *who is wise*, to *man*, the subject of the sentence, *A man will be honored*, and thus there is formed what we call a **Complex Sentence**. These two parts we call **Clauses**. *A man will be honored* is the **Independent Clause**; *who is wise* is the **Dependent Clause**.

Clauses that modify nouns or pronouns are called **Adjective Clauses**.

DEFINITION.—A *Clause* is a part of a sentence containing a subject and its predicate.

DEFINITION.—A *Dependent Clause* is one used as an adjective, an adverb, or a noun.

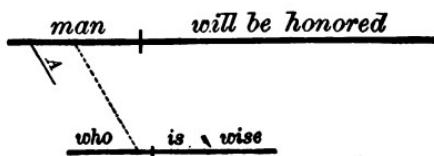
DEFINITION.—An *Independent Clause* is one not dependent on another clause.

DEFINITION.—A *Simple Sentence* is one that contains but one subject and one predicate, either or both of which may be compound.

DEFINITION.—A *Complex Sentence* is one composed of an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses.

Analysis and Parsing.

Model.—



Explanation of the Diagram.—You will notice that the lines standing for the subject and predicate of the *independent clause* are heavier

than those of the *dependent clause*. This pictures to you the relative importance of the two clauses. You will see that the pronoun *who* is written on the subject line of the dependent clause. But this word performs the office of a conjunction also, and this office is expressed in the diagram by a dotted line. As all modifiers are joined by slanting lines to the words they modify, you learn from this diagram that *who is wise* is a modifier of *man*.

Oral Analysis.—This is a *complex sentence*, because it consists of an *independent clause* and a *dependent clause*. *A man will be honored* is the *independent clause*; *who is wise* is the *dependent clause*. *Man* is the subject of the independent clause; *will be honored* is the predicate. The word *A* and the clause, *who is wise*, are modifiers of the subject. *A* points out *man*, and *who is wise* tells the *kind* of man. *A man who is wise* is the modified subject; the predicate is unmodified. *Who* is the subject of the dependent clause, *is* is the predicate, and *wise* is the attribute complement. *Who* connects the two clauses.

1. He that runs may read.
2. Man is the only animal that laughs and weeps.
3. Henry Hudson discovered the river which bears his name.
4. He necessarily remains weak who never tries exertion.
5. The meridians are those circles that extend from pole to pole.
6. He who will not be ruled by the rudder must be ruled by the rock.
7. Animals that have a backbone are called vertebrates.
8. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.
9. The thick mists which prevail in the neighborhood of Newfoundland are caused by the warm waters of the Gulf Stream.
10. The power which brings a pin to the ground holds the earth in its orbit.
11. Death is the black camel which kneels at every man's gate.
12. Our best friends are they who tell us of our faults, and help us to mend them.

The pupil will notice that, in some of these sentences, the dependent clause modifies the subject; in others, the noun complement.

COMMA—RULE.—The *adjective* or the *adverb clause*, when it does not closely follow and restrict the word modified, is generally set off by the comma.

LESSON 58.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

Expand each of the following adjectives into

1. A phrase ;
2. A clause ;

and then build these three modifiers into three separate sentences of your own construction.

Model.—*Energetic*; *of energy*; $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{who has energy,} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{who is energetic.} \end{array} \right.$

An *energetic* man will succeed. A man *of energy* will succeed. A man *who has energy* (or *who is energetic*) will succeed.

Honest, long-eared, beautiful, wealthy.

Expand each of the following possessive nouns into

1. A phrase ;
2. A clause ;

and then build these three modifiers into three separate sentences.

Model.—*Saturn's rings*; *the rings of Saturn*; *the rings which surround Saturn*.

Saturn's rings can be seen with a telescope. *The rings of Saturn* can be seen with a telescope. *The rings which surround Saturn* can be seen with a telescope.

Absalom's hair; the hen's eggs; the elephant's tusks.

Change the following simple sentences into complex sentences by expanding the participial phrases into clauses.

The vessels carrying the blood from the heart are called arteries.

The book prized above all other books is the Bible.

Rivers rising west of the Rocky Mts. flow into the Pacific ocean.

The guns fired at Concord were heard around the world.

To the Teacher.—For additional composition exercises with particular reference to adjective clauses, see Notes, p. 181.

LESSON 59.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

THE ADVERB CLAUSE.

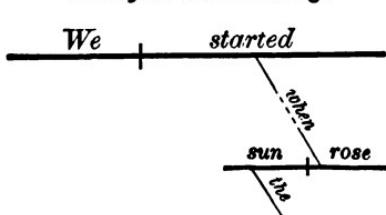
Hints for Oral Instruction.—You learned in Lesson 33 that an adverb can be expanded into an equivalent phrase; as, The book was *carefully* read=The book was read *with care*.

We shall now learn that a phrase used as an adverb may be expanded into an **Adverb clause**. In the sentence, *We started at sunrise*, what phrase is used like an adverb? **P.**—*At sunrise*. **T.**—Expand this phrase into an equivalent clause, and give me the entire sentence. **P.**—*We started when the sun rose*.

T.—You see that the phrase, *at sunrise*, and the clause, *when the sun rose*, both modify *started*, telling the time of starting, and are therefore equivalent to adverbs. We will then call such clauses **Adverb Clauses**.

Analysis and Parsing.

Model.—



Explanation of the Diagram.—The line which connects the two predicate lines pictures three things. It is made up of three parts. The

upper part shows that *when* modifies *started*; the lower part, that it modifies *rose*; and the dotted part shows that it *connects*.

Oral Analysis.—This is a complex sentence, because —; *We started* is the independent clause, and *when the sun rose* is the dependent clause. *We* is the subject of the independent clause, and *started* is the predicate. The clause, *when the sun rose*, is a modifier of the predicate, because it tells when we started. *Started when the sun rose* is the modified predicate.

Sun is the subject of the dependent clause, and *rose* is the predicate, and *the* is a modifier of *sun*; *the sun* is the modified subject. *When* modifies *rose* and *started*, and connects the clause-modifier to the predicate *started*.

Parsing of *when*.—*When* is an adverb modifying the two verbs *started* and *rose*, thus connecting the two clauses. It modifies these verbs by showing that the two actions took place at the same time.

1. The dew glitters when the sun shines.
2. Printing was unknown when Homer wrote the Iliad.
3. Where the bee sucks honey, the spider sucks poison.
4. Ah! few shall part where many meet.
5. Where the devil cannot come, he will send.
6. While the bridegroom tarried, they all slumbered and slept.
7. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.
8. When the tale of bricks is doubled, Moses comes.
9. When I look upon the tombs of the great, every emotion of envy dies within me.
10. The upright man speaks as he thinks.
11. He died as the fool dieth.
12. The scepter shall not depart from Judah until Shiloh come.

LESSON 60.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

ADVERB CLAUSES.

Expand each of the following phrases into an adverb clause, and fit this clause into a sentence of your own building.

Model.—*At sunset; when the sun set.* We returned *when the sun set.*

At the hour ; on the playground ; by moonlight ; in youth ; among icebergs ; after school ; at the forks of the road ; during the day ; before church ; with my friend.

To each of the following independent clauses, join an adverb clause, and so make complex sentences.

_____ Peter began to sink. The man dies _____. Grass grows _____. Iron _____ can easily be shaped. The rattlesnake shakes his rattle _____. _____ a nation mourns. Pittsburg stands _____. He dared to lead_____.

This exercise can be extended by requiring the pupils to join *several* adverb clauses to each example above given.

To the Teacher.—For additional composition exercises with particular reference to adverb clauses, see Notes, p. 181.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

In what two ways may nouns be used as modifiers? Illustrate. Nouns and pronouns denoting possession may sometimes be changed into what? Illustrate. Give the rule for the punctuation of explanatory modifiers. Into what may an adjective be expanded? Into what may a participial phrase be expanded? Give illustrations. Give an example of a complex sentence. Of a clause. Of an independent clause. Of a dependent clause. Into what may a phrase used as an adverb be expanded? Illustrate.

LESSON 61.

THE NOUN CLAUSE.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—*That stars are suns is taught by astronomers.* What is taught by astronomers? **P.**—That stars are suns. **T.**—What then is the subject of *is taught?* **P.**—The clause, *That stars are suns.* **T.**—This clause then performs the office of what part of speech? **P.**—Of a noun.

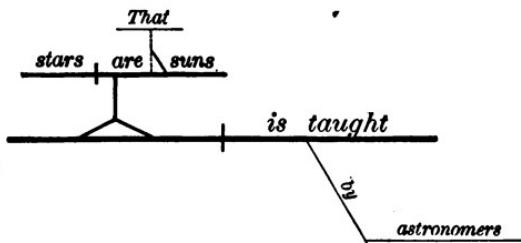
T.—*Astronomers teach that stars are suns.* What do astronomers teach? **P.**—That stars are suns. **T.**—What is the object complement of *teach*? **P.**—The clause, *that stars are suns*. **T.**—What office then does this clause perform? **P.**—That of a noun.

T.—*The teaching of astronomers is, that stars are suns.* What does *is* assert of teaching? **P.**—That stars are suns. **T.**—What then is the attribute complement? **P.**—*That stars are suns.* **T.**—Does this complement express the quality of the subject, or does it name the same thing that the subject names? **P.**—It names the same thing that the subject names. **T.**—It is equivalent then to what part of speech? **P.**—To a noun.

T.—You see then that a clause, like a noun, may be used as the subject or the complement of a sentence.

Analysis and Parsing.

Model.—



You will understand this diagram from the explanation of the second diagram in Lesson 49.

Oral Analysis.—This is a complex sentence, in which the whole sentence takes the place of the independent clause. *That stars are suns* is the dependent clause. *That stars are suns* is the subject of the whole sentence, etc. —. *That* simply introduces the dependent clause.

In *parsing*, call *that* a conjunction.

1. That the Scotch are an intelligent people is generally acknowledged.
2. That the moon is made of green cheese is believed by some boys and girls.

3. That Julius Cæsar invaded Britain is a historic fact.
 4. That children should obey their parents is a divine precept.
 5. I know that my Redeemer liveth.
 6. Plato taught that the soul is immortal.
 7. Peter denied that he knew his Lord.
 8. Mahomet found that the mountain would not move.
 9. The principle maintained by the colonies was, that taxation without representation is unjust.
 10. Our intention is, that this work shall be well done.
 11. Our hearts' desire and prayer is, that you may be saved.
 12. The belief of the Sadducees was, that there is no resurrection of the dead.
-

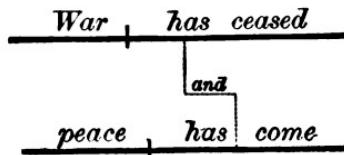
LESSON 62.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

DEFINITION.—A *Compound Sentence* is one composed of two or more independent clauses.

Model.—War has ceased, and peace has come.



Explanation of the Diagram.—These two clause diagrams are shaded alike to show that the two clauses are of the same rank. The connecting line is not slanting, for one clause is not a modifier of the other. As one entire clause is connected with the other, the connecting line is drawn between the predicates simply for convenience.

Oral Analysis.—This is a *compound sentence*, because it is made up of two independent clauses. The first clause, etc. —.

1. Morning dawns, and the clouds disperse.
2. Prayer leads the heart to God, and he always listens.

3. A soft answer turneth away wrath, but grievous words stir up anger.
 4. Power works easily, but fretting is a perpetual confession of weakness.
 5. Many meet the gods, but few salute them.
 6. We eat to live, but we do not live to eat.
 7. The satellites revolve in orbits around the planets, and the planets move in orbits around the sun.
 8. A wise son maketh a glad father, but a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother.
 9. Every man desires to live long, but no man would be old.
 10. *Pride goeth before destruction, and a haughty spirit before a fall.
 11. Towers are measured by their shadows, and great men, by their calumniators.
 12. Worth makes the man, and want of it, the fellow.
-

LESSON 63.

SENTENCES CLASSIFIED WITH RESPECT TO THEIR MEANING.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—You have already become acquainted with three kinds of sentences. Can you name them?

P.—The Simple sentence, the Complex, and the Compound.

T.—These classes have been made with regard to the *form* of the sentence. We will now arrange sentences in classes with regard to their *meaning*.

Mary sings. Does Mary sing? Sing, Mary. How Mary sings! Here are four simple sentences. Do they all *mean* the same thing?

P.—They do not.

T.—Well, you see they differ. Let me tell you wherein. The first one tells a fact, the second asks a question, the third expresses a command, and the fourth expresses sudden thought or strong feeling. We call the first a **Declarative sentence**, the second an **Interrogative sen-**

* A verb is to be supplied in each of the last three sentences.

tence, the third an **Imperative sentence**, and the fourth an **Exclamatory sentence**.

DEFINITION.—A *Declarative Sentence* is one that affirms or denies.

DEFINITION.—An *Interrogative Sentence* is one that expresses a question.

DEFINITION.—An *Imperative Sentence* is one that expresses a command or an entreaty.

DEFINITION.—An *Exclamatory Sentence* is one that expresses sudden thought or strong feeling.

INTERROGATION POINT—RULE.—Every direct interrogative sentence should be followed by an interrogation point.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

Change each of the following declarative sentences into three interrogative sentences, and tell how the change was made.

Model.—*Girls can skate.* *Can girls skate?* *How can girls skate?* *What girls can skate?*

You are happy. Parrots can talk. Low houses were built.

Change each of the following declarative sentences into an imperative sentence.

Model.—*Carlo eats his dinner.* *Eat your dinner, Carlo.**

George plays the flute. Birdie stands on one leg.

Change each of the following declarative sentences into as many exclamatory sentences as you can.

Model.—*You are happy.* *How happy you are!* *What a happy child you are!* *You are so happy!*

Time flies swiftly. I am glad to see you. A refreshing shower fell. Lapland is a cold country. It is hot between the tropics.

* **To THE TEACHER.**—Call attention to the punctuation of independent words.

Write a declarative, an interrogative, an imperative, and an exclamatory sentence on each of the following topics.

Weather, lightning, a stage coach.

LESSON 64.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES IN REVIEW.

In the analysis, classify these sentences first with reference to their *form*, and then with reference to their *meaning*.

1. Wickedness is often made a substitute for wit.
 2. Alfred was a brave, pious, and patriotic prince.
 3. The throne of Philip trembles while Demosthenes speaks.
 4. That the whole is equal to the sum of its parts is an axiom.
 5. The lion belongs to the cat tribe, but he cannot climb a tree.
 6. Pride is a flower that grows in the devil's garden.
 7. Of all forms of habitation, the simplest is the burrow.
 8. When the righteous are in authority, the people rejoice.
 9. When the wicked beareth rule, the people mourn.
 10. *Cassius, be not deceived.
 11. How poor, how rich, how abject, how august, how wonderful is man !
 12. Which is the largest city in the world ?
-

LESSON 65.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES IN REVIEW—CONTINUED.

1. Politeness is the oil which lubricates the wheels of society.
 2. O liberty ! liberty ! how many crimes are committed in thy name !
-

* Cassius is independent, and may be diagramed like an interjection. The subject of *be deceived* is *thou*, or *you*, understood.

-
3. The mind is a goodly field, and to sow it with trifles is the worst husbandry in the world.
 4. Every day in thy life is a leaf in thy history.
 5. Make hay while the sun shines.
 6. Columbus did not know that he had discovered a new continent.
 7. The subject of inquiry was, Who invented printing ?
 8. The cat's tongue is covered with thousands of little sharp cones, pointing towards the throat.
 9. The fly sat upon the axle of a chariot-wheel and said, " What a dust do I raise ! "
 10. Sir Humphrey Gilbert, attempting to recross the Atlantic in his little vessel, the Squirrel, went down in mid-ocean.
 11. Charity begins at home, but it should not stay there.
 12. The morn, in russet mantle clad, walks o'er the dew of yon high eastern hill.
-

LESSON 66.

MISCELLANEOUS ERRORS IN REVIEW.

I haven't near so much. I only want one. Draw the string tightly. He writes good. I will prosecute him who sticks bills upon this church or any other nuisance. Noah for his godliness and his family were saved from the flood. We were at Europe this summer. You may rely in that. She lives to home. I can't do no work. He will never be no better. They seemed to be nearly dressed alike. I won't never do so no more. A ivory ball. An hundred head of cattle. george washington. gen dix of n y. o sarah i Saw A pretty Bonnet. are You going home ? A young man wrote these verses who has long lain in his grave for his own amusement. This house will be kept by the widow of Mr. B. who died recently on an improved plan. *In correcting the position of the adjective clauses in the two examples above, observe the caution for the phrase modifiers, Lesson 41.* He was an independent small farmer. The mind knows feels and thinks. The urchin was ragged barefooted dirty homeless and friendless. I am some tired. This here road is rough. That there man is homely. pshaw i am so Disgusted. Whoa can't you stand still. James

1 writer lived on the

2.

of the sentences

3.

his age.

onto three.

ada, and the United
are branches of the

2. parentage in each
kind of writing.
writer in literature.
subject and the
verb.

Out of the four following sentences, build one sentence having three explanatory modifiers.

Model. — Elizabeth was *the daughter of Henry VIII.*

Elizabeth was *sister of Queen Mary.*

Elizabeth was *the patron of literature.*

Elizabeth defeated the Armada.

Elizabeth, the daughter of Henry VIII., sister of Queen Mary, and the patron of literature, defeated the Armada.

Boston is the capital of Massachusetts.

Boston is the Athens of America.

Boston is the "Hub of the Universe."

Boston has crooked streets.

Expand the following sentence into four sentences.

Daniel Webster, the great jurist, the expounder of the Constitution, and the chief of the "American Triumvirate," died with the words, "I still live," on his lips.

LESSON 68.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

To the Teacher.—For additional exercises in composition, see Notes, pp. 180-184.

Change the following simple sentences into complex sentences by expanding the phrases into adjective clauses.

Model.—People *living in glass houses* shouldn't throw stones.

People *who live in glass houses* shouldn't throw stones.

Those living in the Arctic regions need much oily food.

A house built upon the rock will stand.

The boy of studious habits will always have his lesson.

Wellington was a man of iron will.

Change the following complex sentences into simple sentences by contracting the adjective clauses into phrases.

Much of the cotton which is raised in the Gulf States is exported.

The house which was built upon the sand fell.

A thing which is beautiful is a joy forever.

Aaron Burr was a man who had fascinating manners.

Change the following simple sentences into complex sentences by expanding the phrases into adverb clauses.

Model.—Birds return *in the spring*. When *spring comes*, the birds return.

The dog came at call. In old age our senses fail.

Change the following complex sentences into simple sentences by contracting the adverb clauses into phrases.

The ship started when the tide was at flood.

When he reached the middle of his speech, he stopped.

By supplying noun clauses, make complete sentences out of the following expressions.

_____ is a well-known fact. The fact was _____. Ben. Franklin said _____.

◆ ◆ ◆

LESSON 69.

GENERAL REVIEW.

What is a letter? Give the name and the sound of each of the letters in the three following words: *letters, name, sound*. Into what classes are letters divided? Define each class. Name the vowels. How are the different kinds of sounds made? What is a word? What is artificial language? What is English Grammar? What is a sentence? What is the difference between the two expressions, *ripe apples* and *apples are ripe*? What two parts must every sentence have? Define each. What is the analysis of a sentence? What is a diagram? What are the two rules in Lesson 8? What are parts of speech? How many parts of speech are there? Give an example of each. What is a noun? What rule is given in Lesson 15? What is a verb? What must every predicate contain? What is a pronoun? Give the rule for writing the words *I* and *O*. What is a modifier? What is an adjective? What adjectives are sometimes called articles? When is *a* used? When is *an* used? Illustrate. Give an example of one modifier joined to another. What is an adverb? What is a phrase? What is a preposition? What is a conjunction? What is an interjection? What are the four rules in Lesson 37?

100% of the energy

is converted to heat

What is the effect

of the conversion

efficiency on the

amount of heat

produced by the

heat source?

What is the effect

of the conversion

efficiency on the

amount of heat

produced by the

heat source?

What is the effect

of the conversion

efficiency on the

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heat source?

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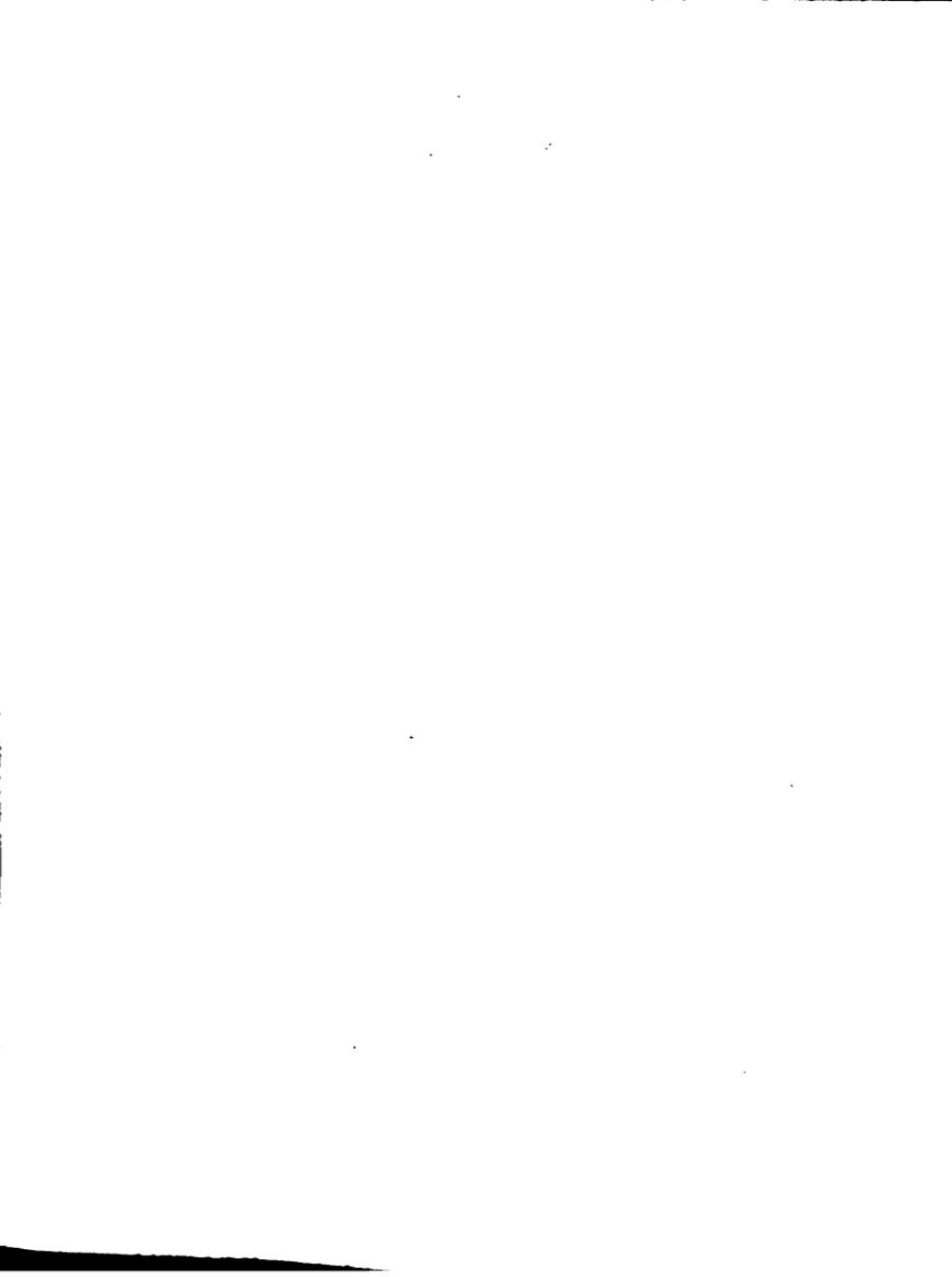
LESSON 70.

GENERAL REVIEW.

What is an object complement? What is an attribute complement? What are the cautions given in Lesson 40? What, in Lesson 41? How does a participle differ from a predicate verb? Illustrate. What offices does an infinitive phrase perform? Illustrate. Give the rule for the punctuation of explanatory modifiers. How are sentences classified with respect to form? Give an example of each class. What is a simple sentence? What is a clause? What is a dependent clause? What is an independent clause? What is a complex sentence? What is a compound sentence? How are sentences classified with respect to meaning? Give an example of each class. What is a declarative sentence? What is an interrogative sentence? What is an imperative sentence? What is an exclamatory sentence? What rule is given in Lesson 63? What different offices may a noun perform? *Ans.—A noun may be used as a subject, as an object, as an attribute, as a possessive modifier, as an explanatory modifier, as the principal word in a prepositional phrase, and it may be used independently.* Illustrate each use. What are sometimes substituted for nouns? *Ans.—Pronouns, phrases, and clauses.* Illustrate. What is the principal office of a verb? What offices may be performed by a phrase? What, by a clause? What different offices may an adjective perform? What parts of speech may connect clauses? *Ans.—Conjunctions, adverbs, and pronouns.* (See Lessons 62, 59, and 57.)

To the Teacher.—For additional review, see "Scheme," p. 180.

If the early presentation of an outline of technical grammar is not compelled by a prescribed course of study, we should here introduce a series of lessons in the construction of sentences, paragraphs, letters, and general compositions. The "Notes for Teachers" referred to in the preceding pages, and the work outlined in pages 144–165, may be suggestive.



MODEL.

Planets revolve

Hurrah

fireman - has rushed

that
and
and
into
the
house
the
burning

rose

reigned
fell

Frogs

antelopes
Kangaroos

Napoleon

can jump

That

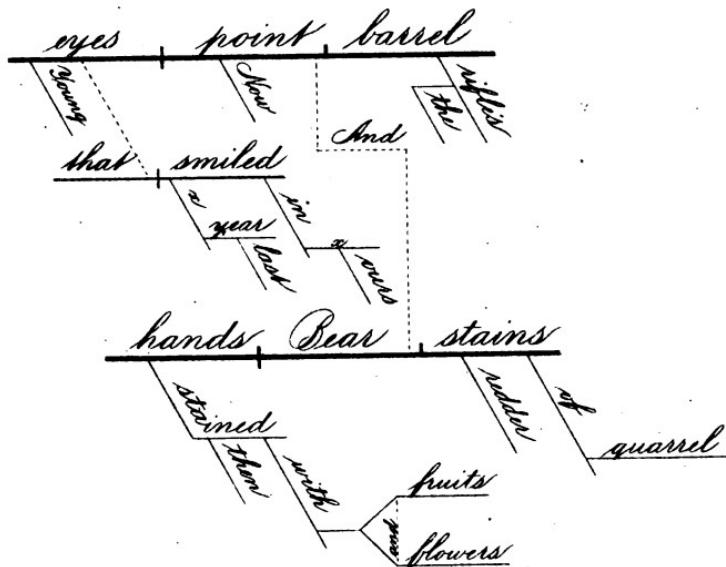
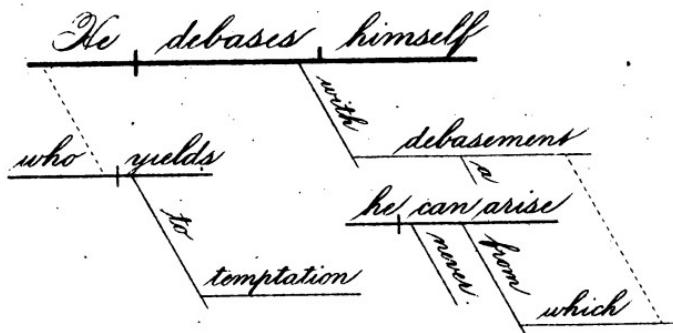
stars are suns

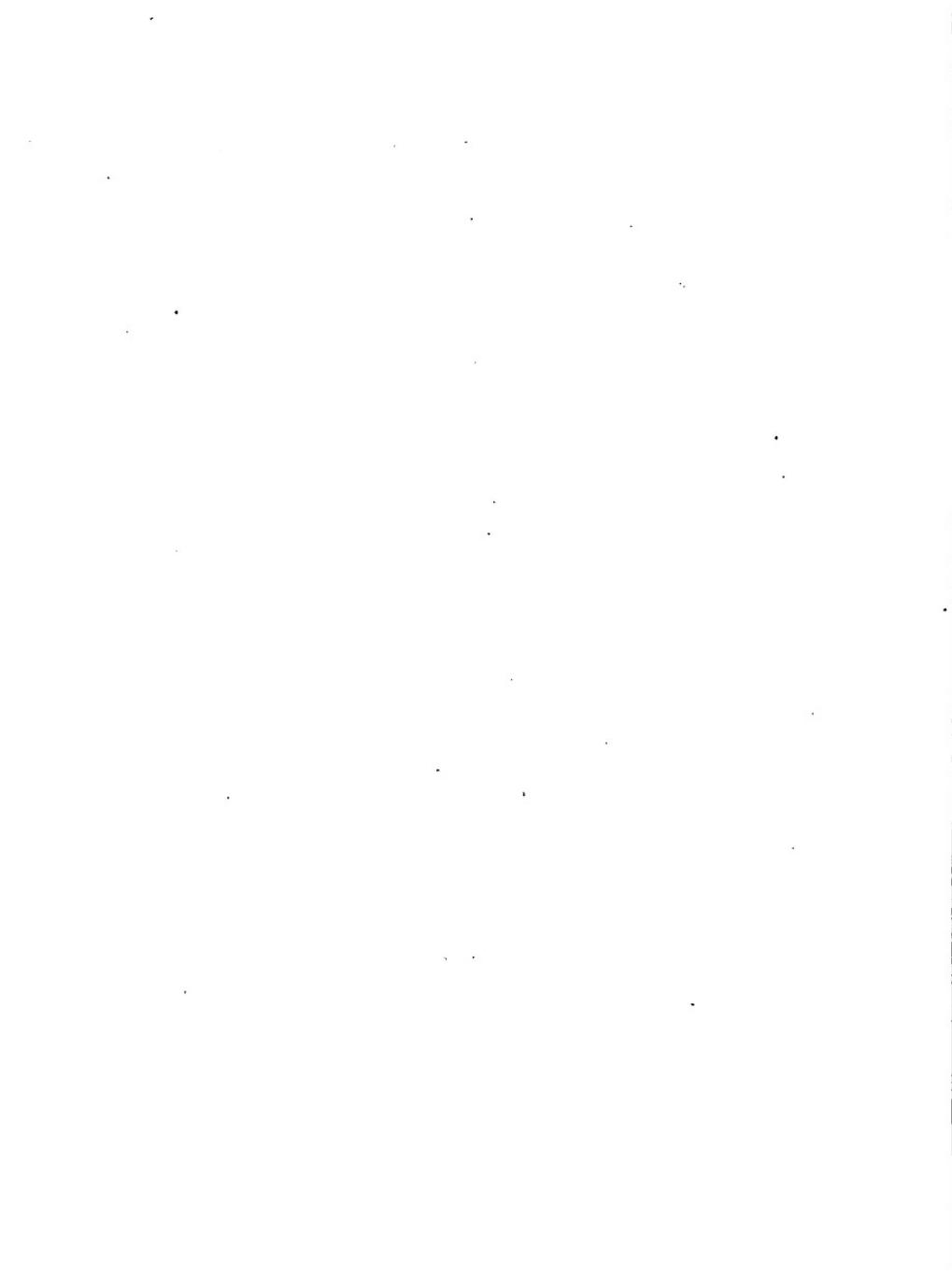
is taught

by

astronomers

DIAGRAMS.





PARTS OF SPEECH SUB-DIVIDED.

LESSON 71.

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—Hereafter, in the "Hints," we shall drop the dialogue form, but we expect the teacher to continue it. A poor teacher does all the talking, a good teacher makes the pupils talk.

The teacher may here refer to his talk about the classification of birds, and show that, after birds have been arranged in great classes, such as robins, sparrows, etc., these classes will need to be subdivided, if the pupil is to be made thoroughly acquainted with this department of the animal kingdom. So, after grouping *words* into the eight great classes, called Parts of Speech, these classes may be divided into other classes. For instance, take the two nouns *city* and *Brooklyn*. The word *city* is the *common* name of all places of a certain class, but the word *Brooklyn* is the *proper* or particular name of an *individual* of this class. We have here, then, two kinds of nouns which we call **Common** and **Proper**.

Let the teacher write a number of nouns on the board, and require the pupil to classify them and give the reasons for the classification.

To prepare the pupil thoroughly for this work, the teacher will find it necessary to explain why such words as *music*, *mathematics*, *knowledge*, etc., are common nouns. *Music*, e. g., is not a proper noun, for it is not a name given to an individual thing to distinguish it from other things of the same class. There are no other things of the same class—it forms a class by itself. So we call the noun *music* a *common* noun.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

The speaker seldom refers to himself by name, but uses the pronoun *I* instead. In speaking *to* a person, we often use the pronoun *you* instead of his name. In speaking *of* a person or thing that has been

mentioned before, we say *he* or *she* or *it*. These words that by their *form* indicate the speaker, the hearer, or the person or thing spoken of, are called **Personal Pronouns**. See Lesson 19, "Hints."

Give sentences containing nouns repeated, and require the pupils to improve these sentences by substituting pronouns.

When we wish to refer to an object that has been mentioned in another clause, and at the same time to *connect the clauses*, we use a class of pronouns called **Relative Pronouns**. Let the teacher illustrate by using the pronouns *who*, *which*, and *that*. See Lesson 57, "Hints for Oral Instruction."

When we wish to ask about anything whose *name is unknown*, we use a class of pronouns called **Interrogative Pronouns**. The interrogative pronoun stands for the unknown name, and asks for it; as, *Who* comes here? *What* is this?

Both men were wrong. Let us omit *men* and say, *Both were wrong*. You see the meaning is not changed—*both* is here equivalent to *both men*, that is, it performs the office of an adjective and that of a noun. It is therefore an **Adjective Pronoun**. Let the teacher further illustrate the office of the adjective pronoun by using the words *each*, *all*, *many*, *some*, *such*, etc.

DEFINITIONS.

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

A **Common Noun** is a name which belongs to all things of a class.

A **Proper Noun** is the particular name of an individual.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

A **Personal Pronoun** is one that, by its form, denotes the speaker, the one spoken to, or the one spoken of.

A **Relative Pronoun** is one that relates to some preceding word or words, and connects clauses.

An **Interrogative Pronoun** is one with which a question is asked.

An **Adjective Pronoun** is one that performs the offices of both an adjective and a noun.

LESSON 72.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

Build each of the following groups of nouns into a sentence. See Rule, Lesson 15.

webster cares office washington repose home marshfield.

george washington commander army revolution president united states westmoreland state virginia month february.

san francisco city port pacific trade united states lines steamships sandwich islands japan china australia.

Write five simple sentences, each containing one of the five personal pronouns : *I, thou or you, he, she, and it.*

Write four complex sentences, each containing one of the four relative pronouns : *who, which, that, and what.*

What is used as a relative pronoun when the antecedent is omitted. The word for which a pronoun stands is called its antecedent. When we express the antecedent, we use *which* or *that*. I shall do *what* is required; I shall do the *thing which* is required, or *that* is required.

Build three interrogative sentences, each containing one of the three interrogative pronouns : *who, which, and what.*

Build eight sentences, each containing one of the following adjective pronouns : *few, many, much, some, this, these, that, those.*

LESSON 73.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—When I say *large, round, sweet, yellow oranges*, the words *large, round, sweet, and yellow* modify the word *oranges* by telling the *kind*, and limit the application of the word to *oranges* of that kind.

When I say *this orange, yonder orange, one orange*, the words *this, yonder*, and *one* do not tell the kind, but simply point out or number the orange, and limit the application of the word to the orange pointed out or numbered.

Adjectives of the first class describe by giving a quality, and so are called **Descriptive adjectives**.

Adjectives of the second class define by pointing out or numbering, and so are called **Definitive adjectives**.

Let the teacher write nouns on the board, and require the pupils to modify them by appropriate descriptive and definitive adjectives.

DEFINITIONS.

A **Descriptive Adjective** is one that limits by expressing quality.

A **Definitive Adjective** is one that limits by pointing out, numbering, or denoting quantity.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

Place the following adjectives in two columns, one headed *descriptive*, and the other *definitive*, then build simple sentences in which they shall be employed as *modifiers*. Find out the meaning of each word before you use it.

Round, frolicsome, first, industrious, jolly, idle, skillful, each, the, faithful, an, kind, one, tall, ancient, modern, dancing, mischievous, stationary, nimble, several, slanting, parallel, oval, every.

Build simple sentences in which the following *descriptive* adjectives shall be employed as *attribute complements*. Let some of these attributes be *compound*.

Restless, impulsive, dense, rare, gritty, sluggish, dingy, selfish, clear, cold, sparkling, slender, graceful, hungry, friendless.

Build simple sentences in which the following *descriptive* adjectives shall be employed.

Some of these adjectives have the *form of participles*, and some are *derived from proper nouns*.

CAPITAL LETTER—RULE.—An Adjective derived from a proper noun must begin with a capital letter.

Shining, moving, swaying, bubbling, American, German, French, Swiss, Irish, Chinese.

LESSON 74.

CLASSES OF VERBS.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—*The man caught* makes no complete assertion, and is not a sentence. If I add the object complement *fish*, I complete the assertion and form a sentence—*The man caught fish*. The action expressed by *caught* passes over from the man to the fish. *Transitive* means *passing over*, and so all those verbs that express an action that passes over from a doer to something which receives, are called **Transitive verbs**.

Fish swim. The verb *swim* does not require an object to complete the sentence. No action passes from a doer to a receiver. These verbs which express action that does not pass over to a receiver, and all those which do not express action at all, but simply *being* or *state of being*, are called **Intransitive verbs**.

Let the teacher write transitive and intransitive verbs on the board, and require the pupils to distinguish them.

When I say, I *crush* the worm, I express an action that is going on now, or in present time. I *crushed* the worm, expresses an action that took place in past time. As *tense* means *time*, we call the form *crush* the *present tense* of the verb, and *crushed* the *past tense*. In the sentence, The worm *crushed* under my foot died, *crushed*, expressing the action as assumed, is, as you have already learned, a participle; and, as the action is completed, we call it a *past participle*. Now notice that *ed* was added to *crush*, the verb in the present tense, to form the verb in the past tense, and to form the past participle. Most verbs form their past tense and their past participle by adding *ed*, and so we call such **Regular verbs**.

I *see* the man ; I *saw* the man ; The man *seen* by me ran away. I *catch* fish in the brook ; I *caught* fish in the brook ; The fish *caught* in

the brook tasted good. Here the verbs *see* and *catch* do not form their past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the present, and so we call them **Irregular verbs**.

Let the teacher write on the board verbs of both classes, and require the pupils to distinguish them.

DEFINITIONS.

CLASSES OF VERBS WITH RESPECT TO MEANING.

A Transitive Verb is one that requires an object.*

An Intransitive Verb is one that does not require an object.

CLASSES OF VERBS WITH RESPECT TO FORM.

A Regular Verb is one that forms its past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the present.†

An Irregular Verb is one that does not form its past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the present.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

Place the following verbs in two columns, one headed *transitive* and the other, *intransitive*. Place the same verbs in two other columns, one headed *regular* and the other, *irregular*. Build these verbs into sentences by supplying a subject to each intransitive verb, and a subject and an object to each transitive verb.

Vanish, gallop, bite, promote, contain, produce, provide, veto, secure, scramble, rattle, draw.

Arrange the following verbs as before, and then build them into sentences by supplying a subject and a noun at-

* The *object* of a transitive verb, that is, the name of the receiver of the action, may be the *object complement*, or it may be the *subject*; as, Brutus stabbed *Cæsar*, *Cæsar* was stabbed by Brutus.

† If the present ends in *e*, the *e* is dropped when *ed* is added; as, *love*, *loved*; *believe*, *believed*.

tribute to each intransitive verb, and a subject and an object to each transitive verb.

Degrade, gather, know, was, became, is.

A verb may be transitive in one sentence and intransitive in another. Use the following verbs both ways.

Model.—The wren *sings* sweetly.

The wren *sings* a pretty little song.

Bend, ring, break, dash, move.

LESSON 75.

CLASSES OF ADVERBS.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—When I say, He will come *soon*, or *presently*, or *often*, or *early*, I am using, to modify *will come*, words which express the *time* of coming. These and all such adverbs we call **Adverbs of Time**.

He will come *up*, or *hither*, or *here*, or *back*. Here I use, to modify *will come*, words which express *place*. These and all such adverbs we call **Adverbs of Place**.

When I say, The weather is *so* cold, or *very* cold, or *intensely* cold, the words *so*, *very*, and *intensely* modify the adjective *cold* by expressing the *degree* of coldness. These and all such adverbs we call **Adverbs of Degree**.

When I say, He spoke *freely*, *wisely*, and *well*, the words *freely*, *wisely*, and *well* tell *how* or *in what manner* he spoke. All such adverbs we call **Adverbs of Manner**.

Let the teacher place adverbs on the board, and require the pupil to classify them.

DEFINITIONS.

Adverbs of Time are those that generally answer the question, *When?*

Adverbs of Place are those that generally answer the question, *Where?*

Adverbs of Degree are those that generally answer the question, *To what extent?*

Adverbs of Manner are those that generally answer the question, *In what way?*

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

Place the following adverbs in the four classes we have made—if the classification be perfect, there will be five words in each column—then build each adverb into a simple sentence.

Partly, only, too, wisely, now, here, when, very, well, where, nobly, already, seldom, more, ably, away, always, not, there, out.

Some adverbs, as you have already learned, modify two verbs, and thus connect the two clauses in which these verbs occur. Such adverbs are called *Conjunctive Adverbs*.

The following *dependent* clauses are introduced by *conjunctive adverbs*. Build them into complex sentences by supplying *independent clauses*.

— when the ice is smooth ; — while we sleep ; — before winter comes ; — where the reindeer lives ; — wherever you go.



LESSON 76.

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS.*

Hints for Oral Instruction.—*Frogs, antelopes, and kangaroos can jump.* Here the three nouns are of the same rank in the sentence. All are subjects of *can jump*. *War has ceased, and peace has come.* In this compound sentence, there are two clauses of the same rank. The word *and* connects the subjects of *can jump*, in the first sentence ; and

* For classified lists, see pp. 194, 195.

the two clauses, in the second. All words that connect words, phrases, or clauses of the *same rank* are called **Co-ordinate Conjunctions**.

If you have tears, prepare to shed them now. I will go, because you need me. Here *if* joins the clause, *you have tears*, as a modifier, expressing condition, to the independent clause, *prepare to shed them now*; and *because* connects *you need me*, as a modifier, expressing reason or cause, to the independent clause, *I will go*. These and all such conjunctions as connect dependent clauses to clauses of a *higher rank* are called **Subordinate Conjunctions**.

Let the teacher illustrate the meaning and use of the words *subordinate* and *co-ordinate*.

DEFINITIONS.

Co-ordinate Conjunctions are such as connect words, phrases, or clauses of the same rank.

Subordinate Conjunctions are such as connect clauses of different rank.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

Build four short sentences for each of the three *co-ordinate conjunctions* that follow. In the first, let the conjunction be used to connect principal parts of a sentence; in the second, to connect word modifiers; in the third, to connect phrase modifiers; and in the fourth, to connect independent clauses.

And, or, but.

Write four short complex sentences containing the four *subordinate conjunctions* that follow. Let the first be used to introduce a noun clause, and the other three to connect adverb clauses to independent clauses.

That, for, if, because.

LESSON 77.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

What new subject is treated of in Lesson 71? Name and define the different classes of nouns. Illustrate by examples the difference between common nouns and proper nouns. Name and define the different classes of pronouns. Can the pronoun *I* be used to stand for the one spoken to?—the one spoken of? Does the relative pronoun distinguish by its *form* the speaker, the one spoken to, and the one spoken of? Illustrate. What office is performed by a relative pronoun besides that of representing some antecedent noun or pronoun? Illustrate. Can any other class of pronouns be used to connect clauses?

For what do interrogative pronouns stand? Illustrate. Where may the antecedent of an interrogative pronoun generally be found? *Ans.—The antecedent of an interrogative pronoun may generally be found in the answer to the question.*

Name and define the different classes of adjectives. Give an example of each class. Name and define the different classes of verbs, made with respect to their meaning. Give an example of each class. Name and define the different classes of verbs, made with respect to their form. Give an example of each class.

Name and define the different classes of adverbs. Give examples of each kind. Name and define the different classes of conjunctions. Illustrate by examples.

Are prepositions and interjections subdivided?

To the Teacher.—For "Schemes," see p. 192.

MODIFICATIONS OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

LESSON 78.

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

You have learned that two words may express a thought, and that the thought may be varied by adding modifying words. You are now to learn that the meaning or use of a word may sometimes be changed by simply changing its *form*. The English language has lost many of its inflections, or forms, so that frequently changes in the meaning and use of words are not marked by changes in form. These *changes* in the *form, meaning, and use* of the parts of speech, we call their **Modifications**.

The boy shouts. *The boys shout.* I have changed the form of the subject *boy* by adding an *s* to it. The meaning has changed. *Boy* denotes one lad; *boys*, two or more lads. This change in the form and meaning of nouns is called **Number**. The word *boy*, denoting one thing, is in the **Singular Number**; and *boys*, denoting more than one thing, is in the **Plural Number**.

Let the teacher write other nouns on the board, and require the pupils to form the plural of them.

DEFINITIONS.

Modifications of the Parts of Speech are changes in their **form, meaning, and use**.

NUMBER.

Number is that modification of a noun or pronoun which denotes one thing or more than one.

The Singular Number denotes one thing.

The Plural Number denotes more than one thing.

RULE.—The *plural* of nouns is regularly formed by adding *s* to the singular.

Write the plural of the following nouns.

Tree, bird, insect, cricket, grasshopper, wing, stick, stone, flower, meadow, pasture, grove, worm, bug, cow, eagle, hawk, wren, plough, shovel.

When a singular noun ends in the sound of *s*, *x*, *z*, *sh*, or *ch*, it is not easy to add the sound of *s*, so *es* is added to make another syllable.

Write the plural of the following nouns.

Guess, box, topaz, lash, birch, compass, fox, waltz, sash, bench, gas, tax, adz, brush, arch.

Many nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant form the plural by adding *es* without increasing the number of syllables.

Write the plural of the following nouns.

Hero, cargo, negro, potato, echo, volcano, mosquito, motto.

Common nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant form the plural by changing *y* into *i* and adding *es* without increasing the number of syllables.

Write the plural of the following nouns.

Lady, balcony, family, city, country, daisy, fairy, cherry, study, sky.

Some nouns ending in *f* and *fe* form the plural by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves* without increasing the number of syllables.

Write the plural of the following nouns.

Sheaf, loaf, beef, thief, calf, half, elf, shelf, self, wolf, life, knife, wife.

LESSON 79.

NUMBER.

From the following list of nouns, select, and write in separate columns : 1st. Those that have no plural ; 2d. Those that have no singular ; 3d. Those that are alike in both numbers.

Pride, wages, trousers, cider, suds, victuals, milk, riches, flax, courage, sheep, deer, flour, idleness, tidings, thanks, ashes, scissors, swine, heathen.

The following nouns have very irregular plurals. Learn to spell the plurals.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Man,	men.	Foot,	feet.
Woman,	women.	Ox,	oxen.
Child,	children.	Tooth,	teeth.
Mouse,	mice.	Goose,	geese.

Learn the following plurals and compare them with the groups in the preceding Lesson.

Moneys, flies, chimneys, valleys, stories, berries, lilies, turkeys, monkeys, cuckoos, pianos, vetoes, solos, folios, gulfs, chiefs, leaves, roofs, scarfs, inches.



LESSON 80.

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.—GENDER.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—*The lion was caged. The lioness was caged.* In the first sentence, something was said about a *male* lion; and in the second, something was said about a *female* lion. Modifications of the noun to denote the sex of the object, we call **Gender**. Knowing the sex of the object, you know the gender of its name. The

word *lion*, denoting a male animal, is in the **Masculine Gender**; and *lioness*, denoting a female lion, is in the **Feminine Gender**.

The names of things *without sex* are in the **Neuter Gender**.

Such words as *cousin, child, friend, neighbor*, may be *either masculine or feminine*.

DEFINITIONS.

Gender is that modification of a noun or pronoun which denotes sex.

The Masculine Gender denotes the male sex.

The Feminine Gender denotes the female sex.

The Neuter Gender denotes want of sex.

The masculine is distinguished from the feminine in three ways :—

- 1st. By a difference in the ending of the nouns.
- 2d. By different words in the compound names.
- 3d. By words wholly or radically different.

Arrange the following pairs in separate columns with reference to these ways.

Abbot, abbess ; actor, actress ; Francis, Frances ; Jesse, Jessie ; bachelor, maid ; beau, belle ; monk, nun ; gander, goose ; administrator, administratrix ; baron, baroness ; count, countess ; czar, czarina ; don, donna ; boy, girl ; drake, duck ; lord, lady ; nephew, niece ; landlord, landlady ; gentleman, gentlewoman ; peacock, peahen ; duke, duchess ; hero, heroine ; host, hostess ; Jew, Jewess ; man-servant, maid-servant ; sir, madam ; wizard, witch ; marquis, marchioness ; widow, widower ; heir, heiress ; Paul, Pauline ; Augustus, Augusta.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

What new way of varying the meaning of words was introduced in Lesson 78? Illustrate. What are modifications of the parts of speech? What is number? How many numbers are there? Name and define each. Give the rule for forming the plural of nouns. Illustrate the

variations of this rule. What is gender? How many genders are there? Name and define each. In how many ways are the genders distinguished? Illustrate.

LESSON 81.

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.—PERSON AND CASE.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—*Number* and *gender*, as you have already learned, are modifications affecting the *meaning* of nouns and pronouns. *Number* is almost always indicated by the ending; *gender*, sometimes. There are two other modifications which refer not to changes in the *meaning* of nouns and pronouns, but to their different *uses* and *relations*. In the English language, these changes are not often indicated by a change of *form*.

I Paul have written. *Paul, thou art* beside thyself. *He brought Paul* before Agrippa. In these three sentences the word *Paul* has *three different uses*. In the first, it is used as the name of the *speaker*; in the second, as the name of *one spoken to*; in the third, as the name of *one spoken of*. You will notice that the *form* of the noun was not changed. This change in the use of nouns and pronouns is called **Person**. The word *I* in the first sentence, the word *thou* in the second, and the word *he* in the third have each a different use. *I, thou, and he* are *personal pronouns*, and, as you have learned, distinguish *person* by their *form*. *I*, denoting the speaker, is in the **First Person**; *thou*, denoting the one spoken to, is in the **Second Person**; and *he*, denoting the one spoken of, is in the **Third Person**.

Personal pronouns and verbs are the only words that distinguish *person* by their *form*.

The bear killed the man. The man killed the bear. The bear's grease was made into hair oil. In the first sentence, the bear is represented as *performing* an action; in the second, as *receiving* an action; in the third, as *possessing* something. So the word *bear* in these sentences has *three different uses*. These uses of nouns are called **Cases**. The use of a noun as subject is called the **Nominative Case**; its use as

object is called the **Objective Case**; and its use to denote possession is called the **Possessive Case**.

The *possessive* is the only case of nouns that is indicated by a change in *form*.

A noun or pronoun used as an *attribute complement* is in the *nominative case*. A noun or pronoun following a preposition as the principal word of a phrase is in the *objective case*. *I* and *he* are *nominative forms*. *Me* and *him* are *objective forms*.

The following sentences are therefore incorrect: It is *me*; It is *him*; *Me* gave the pen to *he*.

DEFINITIONS.

Person is that modification of a noun or pronoun which denotes the speaker, the one spoken to, or the one spoken of.

The *First Person* denotes the one speaking.

The *Second Person* denotes the one spoken to.

The *Third Person* denotes the one spoken of.

Case is that modification of a noun or pronoun which denotes its office in the sentence.

The *Nominative Case of a noun or pronoun* denotes its office as subject or as attribute complement.

The *Possessive Case of a noun or pronoun* denotes its office as possessive modifier.

The *Objective Case of a noun or pronoun* denotes its office as object complement, or as principal word in a prepositional phrase.

LESSON 82.

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.—PERSON AND CASE.

Tell the *person* and *case* of each of the following nouns and pronouns.

Remember that a noun or pronoun used as an *explanatory*

tory modifier is in the same case as the word which it explains, and that a noun or pronoun used *independently* is in the *nominative case*.

We Americans do things in a hurry.

You Englishmen take more time to think.

The Germans do their work with the most patience and deliberation.

We boys desire a holiday.

Come on, my men; I will lead you.

I, your teacher, desire your success.

You, my pupils, are attentive.

I called on Tom, the tinker.

Friends, countrymen, and lovers, hear me for my cause.

Write simple sentences in which each of the following nouns shall be used in the *three persons* and in the *three cases*.

Andrew Jackson, Alexander, Yankees.

Write a sentence containing a noun in the *nominative case*, used as an *attribute*; one in the *nominative*, used as an *explanatory modifier*; one in the *nominative*, used *independently*.

Write a sentence containing a noun in the *objective case*, used to *complete two predicate verbs*; one used to *complete a participle*; one used to *complete an infinitive*; one used with a preposition to make a phrase; one used as an *explanatory modifier*.

To the Teacher.—See pp. 187, 188.

LESSON 83.

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.—DECLENSION.

DEFINITION.—*Declension* is the arrangement of the cases of nouns and pronouns in the two numbers.

Declension of Nouns.**LADY.**

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> lady,	ladies,
<i>Pos.</i> lady's,	ladies',
<i>Obj.</i> lady;	ladies.

CHILD.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> child,	children,
<i>Pos.</i> child's,	children's,
<i>Obj.</i> child;	children.

Declension of Pronouns.**PERSONAL PRONOUNS.****FIRST PERSON.**

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> I,	we,
<i>Pos.</i> my or mine,	our or ours,
<i>Obj.</i> me;	us.

SECOND PERSON—common form.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> you,	you,
<i>Pos.</i> your or yours,	your or yours,
<i>Obj.</i> you;	you.

SECOND PERSON—old form.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> thou,	ye or you,
<i>Pos.</i> thy or thine,	your or yours,
<i>Obj.</i> thee;	you.

THIRD PERSON—masculine.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> he,	they,
<i>Pos.</i> his,	their or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i> him;	them.

THIRD PERSON—feminine.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> she,	they,
<i>Pos.</i> her or hers,	their or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i> her;	them.

THIRD PERSON—neuter.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. it,	they,
Pos. its,	their or theirs,
Obj. it ;	them.

Mine, ours, yours, thine, hers, and theirs are used when the name of the thing possessed is omitted ; as, This rose is *yours* = This rose is *your rose*.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

By joining the word *self* to the possessive forms *my, thy, your*, and to the objective forms *him, her, it*, the **Compound Personal Pronouns** are formed. They have no possessive case, and are alike in the nominative and the objective.

Their plurals are *ourselves, yourselves, and themselves*. Form the **compound personal pronouns**, and write their declension.

RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Sing. and Plu.	Sing. and Plu.
Nom. who,	Nom. which,
Pos. whose,	Pos. whose,
Obj. whom.	Obj. which.

Of which is often used instead of the possessive form of the latter pronoun.

Sing. and Plu.	Sing. and Plu.
Nom. that,	Nom. what,
Pos. —,	Pos. —,
Obj. that.	Obj. what.

Ever and *soever* are added to *who, which, and what* to form the **Compound Relative Pronouns**. They are used when the antecedent is omitted. For declension, see above.

LESSON 84.

POSSESSIVE FORMS.

RULE.—The *possessive case* of nouns is formed in the singular by adding to the nominative the apostrophe and the letter *s* ('s); in the plural, by adding (') only. If the plural does not end in *s*, the apostrophe and the *s* are both added.

Write the *possessive singular* and the *possessive plural* of the following nouns, and place an appropriate noun after each.

Robin, friend, fly, hero, woman, bee, mouse, cuckoo, fox, ox, man, thief, fairy, mosquito, wolf, shepherd, farmer, child, neighbor, cow.

Possession may be expressed also by the preposition *of* and the *objective*; as, the *mosquito's* bill = the bill *of* the *mosquito*.

The possessive sign ('s) is confined *chiefly* to the names of persons and animals.

We do not say the *chair's* legs, but the legs *of* the *chair*. Regard must be had also to the *sound*.

IMPROVE THE FOLLOWING EXPRESSIONS, and expand each into a simple sentence.

The sky's color; the cloud's brilliancy; the rose's leaves; my uncle's partner's house; George's father's friend's farm; the mane of the horse of my brother; my brother's horse's mane.

When there are several possessive nouns, all belonging to one word, the possessive sign is added to the last only. If they modify different words, the sign is added to each.

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING EXPRESSIONS, and expand each into a simple sentence.

Model.—Webster and Worcester's dictionary may be bought at Ticknor's and Field's book-store.

The possessive sign should be added to *Webster*, for the word *dictionary* is understood immediately after. *Webster* and *Worcester* do not together possess the same dictionary. The sign should not be added to *Ticknor*, for the two men, *Ticknor* and *Field*, possess the same store.

Adam's and *Eve's* garden ; *Jacob's* and *Esau's* father ; *Shakespeare* and *Milton's* works ; *Maud*, *Kate*, and *Clara's* gloves ; *Maud's*, *Kate's*, and *Clara's* teacher was ——.

When one possessive noun is explanatory of another, the possessive sign is added to the last only.

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING ERRORS.

I called at Tom's the tinker's. They listened to Peter's the Hermit's eloquence. This was the Apostle's Paul's advice.

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING ERRORS.

Our's, your's, hi's, their's, her's, it's, hisn, yourn, hern.

LESSON 85.

FORMS OF THE PRONOUN.

Remember that *I*, *we*, *thou*, *ye*, *he*, *she*, *they*, and *who* are *nominative* forms, and must not be used in the *objective* case.

Remember that *me*, *us*, *thee*, *him*, *her*, *them*, and *whom* are *objective* forms, and must not be used in the *nominative* case.

To the Teacher.—The *eight* nominative forms and the *seven* objective forms given above are the only distinctive nominative and objective forms in the English language. Let the pupils become familiar with them.

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING ERRORS.

Him and me are good friends.

The two persons were her and me.

Us girls had a jolly time.

It is them, surely.
 Who will catch this? Me.
 Them that despise me shall be lightly esteemed.
 Who is there? Me.
 It was not us, it was him.
 Who did you see?
 Who did you ask for?

Remember that pronouns must agree with their antecedents in number, gender, and person.

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING ERRORS.

Every boy must read their own sentences.
 I gave the horse oats, but he would not eat it.
 Every one must read it for themselves.
 I took up the little boy, and set it on my knee.

Remember that the relative *who* represents persons; *which*, animals and things; *that*, persons, animals, and things; and *what*, things.

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING ERRORS.

I have a dog who runs to meet me.
 The boy which I met was quite lame.
 Those which live in glass houses must not throw stones.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

To the Teacher.—For "Schemes," see p. 190.

How many modifications have nouns and pronouns? Name and define each. How many persons are there? Define each. How many cases are there? Define each. How do you determine the case of an explanatory noun or pronoun? What is declension? How are the forms *mine*, *yours*, etc., now used? What is the rule for forming the possessive case? What words are used only in the nominative case? What words are used only in the objective case?* How do you determine the number, gender, and person of pronouns?

* *Her* is used in the possessive case also.

LESSON 86.

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS—PARSING.

To the Teacher.—For general “Scheme” for parsing, see p. 193.

Select and parse all the nouns and pronouns in Lesson 53.

Model for Written Parsing.—*Elizabeth's favorite, Raleigh, was beheaded by James I.*

CLASSIFICATION.		MODIFICATIONS.				SYNTAX.
<i>Noun.</i>	<i>Kind.</i>	<i>Person.</i>	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Gender.</i>	<i>Case.</i>	
Elizabeth's	Prop.	3d	Sing.	Fem.	Pos.	Pos. Mod. of <i>favorite</i> .
favorite	Com.	“	“	Mas.	Nom.	Sub. of <i>was beheaded</i> .
Raleigh	Prop.	“	“	“	“	Exp. Mod. of <i>favorite</i> .
James I.	“	“	“	“	Obj.	Prin. word after <i>by</i> .

To the Teacher.—Select other exercises, and continue this work as long as it may be profitable. See Lessons 56, 57, 61, 64, and 65.

LESSON 87.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives have one modification; viz., *Comparison*.

DEFINITIONS.

Comparison is a modification of the adjective to express the relative degree of the quality in the things compared.

The *Positive degree* expresses the simple quality.

The *Comparative degree* expresses a greater or a less degree of the quality.

The *Superlative degree* expresses the greatest or the least degree of the quality.

RULE.—Adjectives are regularly compared by adding *er* to the positive to form the comparative, and *est* to the positive to form the superlative.

Adjectives of one syllable are *generally* compared regularly; adjectives of two or more syllables are often compared by prefixing *more* and *most*.

When there are two correct forms, choose the one that can be more easily pronounced.

Compare the following adjectives. For the spelling, consult your dictionaries.

Model.—Positive.

Lovely,
lovely,

Comparative.

lovelier,
more lovely,

Superlative.

loveliest; or
most lovely.

Tame, warm, beautiful, brilliant, amiable, high, mad, greedy, pretty, hot.

Some adjectives are compared *irregularly*. Learn the following forms.

Positive.

Good,
Bad,
Evil,
Ill,
Little,
Much,
Many,

Comparative.

better,
worse,
less,
more,

Superlative.

best.
worst.
least.
most.



LESSON 88.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.

Remember that, when two things or groups of things are compared, the *comparative* degree is commonly used; when more than two, the *superlative* is employed.

Caution.—Adjectives should not be *doubly* compared.

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING ERRORS.

Of all the boys, George is the more industrious.

Peter was older than the twelve apostles.

Which is the longer of the rivers of America?

This was the most unkindest cut of all.

He chose a more humbler part.

My hat is more handsomer than yours.

The younger of those three boys is the smarter.

Which is the more northerly, Maine, Oregon, or Minnesota?

Caution.—Do not use adjectives and adverbs extravagantly.

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING ERRORS.

The weather is horrid.

That dress is perfectly awful.

Your coat sits frightfully.

We had an awfully good time.

This is a tremendously hard lesson.

Harry is a mighty nice boy.

Remember that adjectives whose meaning does not admit of different degrees cannot be compared; as, *every*, *universal*.

From the following list of adjectives, select those that cannot be compared, and then build sentences in which the remaining words shall be used in each of the three degrees of comparison.

All, serene, excellent, immortal, first, two, total, infinite, three-legged, bright.

Adverbs are compared in the same manner as adjectives. The following are compared regularly. Compare them.

Fast, often, soon, late, early.

The following are compared irregularly. Learn them.

<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Sup.</i>
Badly,	worse,	worst.
Ill,		
Well,	better,	best.
Little,	less,	least.
Much,	more,	most.
Far,	farther,	farthest.

Adverbs ending in *ly* are generally compared by prefixing *more* and *most*. Compare the following.

Firmly, gracefully, actively, easily.

To the Teacher.—Let the pupils select and parse all the adjectives and adverbs in Lesson 27. For forms, see p. 193. Select other exercises, and continue the work as long as it is profitable.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

How is a noun parsed? What modification have adjectives? What is comparison? How many degrees of comparison are there? Define each. How are adjectives regularly compared? Distinguish the uses of the comparative and the superlative degree. Give the two cautions in Lesson 88. Illustrate. What adjectives cannot be compared? How are adverbs compared?

LESSON 89.

MODIFICATION OF VERBS.

VOICE.

Hints for Oral Instruction.—*I picked the rose.* I will tell the same thing in another way. *The rose was picked by me.* The first verb *picked* shows that the subject *I* represents the actor, and the second form of the verb, *was picked*, shows that the subject names the thing acted upon. This change in the form of the verb is called **Voice**. The first form is called the **Active Voice**; and the second, the **Passive Voice**.

The *passive* form is very convenient when we wish to assert an ac-

tion without naming any actor. *Money is coined* is better than *somebody coins money*.

DEFINITIONS.

Voice is that modification of the transitive verb which shows whether the subject names the *actor* or the *thing acted upon*.

The **Active Voice** shows that the subject names the actor.

The **Passive Voice** shows that the subject names the thing acted upon.

In each of the following sentences, change the *voice* of the verb without changing the meaning of the sentence. Note the other changes that occur in the sentence.

The industrious bees gather honey from the flowers.

The storm drove the vessel against the rock.

Our words should be carefully chosen.

Death separates the dearest friends.

His vices have weakened his mind and destroyed his health.

True valor protects the feeble and humbles the oppressor.

The Duke of Wellington, who commanded the English armies in the Peninsula, never lost a battle.

Moses led the Israelites out of Egypt.

Dr. Livingstone explored a large part of Africa.

The English were conquered by the Normans.

Name all the transitive verbs in Lessons 20 and 22, and give their *voice*.

LESSON 90.**MODE, TENSE, NUMBER, AND PERSON.**

Hints for Oral Instruction.—When I say, *James walks*, I assert the walking as a *fact*. When I say, *James may walk*, I do not assert the action as a fact, but as a *possible* action. When I say, *If James walk out, he will improve*, I assert the action, not as an actual fact, but as a *condition* of James's improving. When I say to James, *Walk out*, I do

not assert that James actually does the act, I assert the action as a **command**.

The action expressed by the verb *walk* has been asserted in *four different ways*, or **modes**. The first way is called the **Indicative Mode**; the second, the **Potential Mode**; the third, the **Subjunctive Mode**; the fourth, the **Imperative Mode**.

Let the teacher give other examples and require the pupils to repeat this instruction.

For the two forms of the verb called the **Infinitive** and the **Participle**, see "Hints," Lessons 48 and 49.

I walk. *I walked.* *I shall walk.* In each of these three sentences, the *manner* of asserting the action is the same. *I walk* expresses the action as *present*. *I walked* expresses the action as *past*, and *I shall walk* expresses the action as *future*. As **Tense** means *time*, the first form is called the **Present Tense**, the second, the **Past Tense**; and the third, the **Future Tense**.

We have three other forms of the verb, expressing the action as *completed* in the *present*, the *past*, or the *future*.

I have walked out to-day. *I had walked out when he called.* *I shall have walked out by to-morrow.* The form, *have walked*, expressing the action as *completed* in the *present*, is called the **Present Perfect Tense**. The form, *had walked*, expressing the action as *completed* in the *past*, is called the **Past Perfect Tense**. The form, *shall have walked*, expressing an action to be *completed* in the *future*, is called the **Future Perfect Tense**.

Let the teacher give other verbs, and require the pupils to name and explain the different tenses.

I walk. *Thou walkest.* *He walks.* *They walk.*

In the second sentence, the verb *walk* was changed by adding *est*; and in the third, it was changed by adding *s*. These changes are for the sake of agreement with the *person* of the subject. The verb ending in *est* agrees with the subject *thou* in the second person, and the verb ending in *s* agrees with *he* in the third person. In the fourth sentence, the subject is in the third person; but it is plural, and so the verb drops the *s* to agree with *they* in the plural.

Verbs are said to agree in **Person** and **Number** with their subjects. The person and number *forms* will be found in Lessons 93, 94.

DEFINITIONS.

Mode is that modification of the verb which denotes the manner of asserting the action or being.

The *Indicative Mode* asserts the action or being as a fact.

The *Potential Mode* asserts the power, liberty, possibility, or necessity of acting or being.

The *Subjunctive Mode* asserts the action or being as a mere condition, supposition, or wish.

The *Imperative Mode* asserts the action or being as a command or an entreaty.

The *Infinitive* is a form of the verb which names the action or being in a general way, without asserting it of anything.

The *Participle* is a form of the verb partaking of the nature of an adjective or of a noun, and expressing the action or being as assumed.

The *Present Participle* denotes action or being as continuing at the time indicated by the predicate.

The *Past Participle* denotes action or being as completed at the time indicated by the predicate.

The *Past Perfect Participle* denotes action or being as completed at a time previous to that indicated by the predicate.

Tense is that modification of the verb which expresses the time of the action or being.

The *Present Tense* expresses action or being as present.

The *Past Tense* expresses action or being as past.

The *Future Tense* expresses action or being as yet to come.

The *Present Perfect Tense* expresses action or being as completed at the present time.

The *Past Perfect Tense* expresses action or being as completed at some past time.

The Future Perfect Tense expresses action or being to be completed at some future time.

Number and Person of a verb are those modifications that show its agreement with the number and person of its subject.

LESSON 94.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB.

DEFINITIONS.

Conjugation is the regular arrangement of all the forms of the verb.

Synopsis is the regular arrangement of the forms of one number and person in all the modes and tenses.

Auxiliary Verbs are those that help in the conjugation of other verbs.

The auxiliaries are *do*, *be*, *have*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, and *must*.

The **Principal Parts** of a verb are the present indicative or the present infinitive, the past indicative, and the past participle.

These are called *principal parts*, because all the other forms of the verb are derived from them.

We give, below, the *principal parts* of some of the most important *irregular verbs*. Learn them.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past. Par.</i>
Be or am,	was,	been.
Begin,	began,	begun.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Break,	broke,	broken.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Par.</i>
Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Come,	came,	come.
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Drink,	drank,	drunk.
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Eat,	ate,	eaten.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Go,	went,	gone.
Get,	got,	got or gotten.
Give,	gave,	given.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Have,	had,	had.
Know,	knew,	known.
Lay,	laid,	laid.
Lie, (to rest)	lay,	lain.
Ride,	rode,	ridden.
Ring,	rang <i>or</i> rung,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Run,	ran,	run.
See,	saw,	seen.
Set,	set,	set.
Sit,	sat,	sat.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Sing,	sang <i>or</i> sung,	sung.
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Speak,	spoke,	spoken.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Swim,	swam <i>or</i> swum,	swum.
Take,	took,	taken.
Tear,	tore,	torn.
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Write,	wrote,	written.

The following irregular verbs are called *Defective*, because some of their parts are wanting.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
Can,	could.	Will,	would.
May,	might.	Must,	—
Shall,	should.	Ought,	—

LESSON 92.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB SEE IN THE SIMPLE FORM.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Par.</i>
See,	saw,	seen.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I see,	1. We see,
2. { You see, or { Thou seest,	2. You see,
3. He sees ;	3. They see.

PAST TENSE.

1. I saw,	1. We saw,
2. { You saw, or { Thou sawest,	2. You saw,
3. He saw ;	3. They saw.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. I shall see,	1. We shall see,
2. { You will see, or { Thou wilt see,	2. You will see,
3. He will see ;	3. They will see.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I have seen,
2. { You have seen, or
Thou hast seen,
3. He has seen ;

Plural.

1. We have seen,
2. You have seen,
3. They have seen.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I had seen,
2. { You had seen, or
Thou hadst seen,
3. He had seen ;

1. We had seen,
2. You had seen,
3. They had seen.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

1. I shall have seen,
2. { You will have seen, or
Thou wilt have seen,
3. He will have seen ;

1. We shall have seen,
2. You will have seen,
3. They will have seen.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may see,
2. { You may see, or
Thou mayst see,
3. He may see ;

Plural.

1. We may see,
2. You may see,
3. They may see.

PAST TENSE.

1. I might see,
2. { You might see, or
Thou mightst see,
3. He might see ;

1. We might see,
2. You might see,
3. They might see.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I may have seen,
2. { You may have seen, or
Thou mayst have seen,
3. He may have seen ;

1. We may have seen,
2. You may have seen,
3. They may have seen.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.*Singular.*

1. I might have seen,
2. { You might have seen, or
Thou mightst have seen,
3. He might have seen ;

Plural.

1. We might have seen,
2. You might have seen,
3. They might have seen.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.**PRESENT TENSE.***Singular.*

1. If I see,
2. { If you see, or
If thou see,
3. If he see ;

Plural.

1. If we see,
2. If you see,
3. If they see.

IMPERATIVE MODE.**PRESENT TENSE.**

2. See (you *or* thou);
2. See (you).

INFINITIVES.**PRESENT TENSE.**

To see.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

To have seen.

PARTICIPLES.**PRESENT.**

Seeing,

PAST.

Seen,

PAST PERFECT.

Having seen.

To the Teacher.—Let the pupils prefix *do* and *did* to the simple present *see*, and thus make the *emphatic form* of the present and the past tense.

Let *can* and *must* be used in place of *may*; and *could*, *would*, and *should*, in place of *might*.

Require the pupils to tell how each tense is formed, and to note all changes for agreement in number and person.

A majority of modern writers use the *indicative forms* instead of the *subjunctive*, in all of the tenses, unless it may be the *present*. The *subjunctive* forms of the verb *to be* are retained in the *present* and the *past tense*.

Let the pupils understand that the mode and tense forms do not always correspond with the actual meaning. *The ship sails next week.* *I may go tomorrow.* The verbs *sails* and *may go* are *present* in form but *future* in meaning. *If it rains by noon, he may not come.* The verb *rains* is *indicative* in form but *subjunctive* in meaning.

The plural forms, *You saw*, *You were*, etc., are used in the singular also.

LESSON 93.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB—SIMPLE FORM.

Fill out the following forms, using the principal parts of the verb *walk*. *Pres.*, *walk*; *Past*, *walked*; *Past Par.*, *walked*.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I Pres.,
2. { You Pres.,
3. Thou Pres. *est*,
3. He Pres. *s*;

Plural.

1. We Pres.,
2. You Pres.,
3. They Pres..

PAST TENSE.

1. I Past,
2. { You Past,
3. Thou Past *st*,
3. He Past;

1. We Past,
2. You Past,
3. They Past.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. I *shall* Pres.,
2. { You *will* Pres.,
3. Thou *will-t* Pres.,
3. He *will* Pres.;

1. We *shall* Pres.,
2. You *will* Pres.,
3. They *will* Pres..

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I have Past Par.,
 2. { You have Past Par.,
 3. Thou ha-st Past Par.,
 4. He ha-s Past Par.;

Plural.

1. We have Past Par.,
 2. You have Past Par.,
 3. They have Past Par..

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I had Past Par.,
 2. { You had Past Par.,
 3. Thou had-st Past Par.,
 4. He had Past Par.;

1. We had Past Par.,
 2. You had Past Par.,
 3. They had Past Par..

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

1. I shall have Past Par.,
 2. { You will have Past Par.,
 3. Thou wil-t have Past Par.,
 4. He will have Past Par.;

1. We shall have Past Par.,
 2. You will have Past Par.,
 3. They will have Past Par..

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may Pres.,
 2. { You may Pres.,
 3. Thou may-st Pres.,
 4. He may Pres.;

Plural.

1. We may Pres.,
 2. You may Pres.,
 3. They may Pres..

PAST TENSE.

1. I might Pres.,
 2. { You might Pres.,
 3. Thou might-st Pres.,
 4. He might Pres.;

1. We might Pres.,
 2. You might Pres.,
 3. They might Pres..

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I <i>may have</i>	<u>Past Par.</u> ,	We <i>may have</i> <u>Past Par.</u> ,
2. { You <i>may have</i>	<u>Past Par.</u> ,	You <i>may have</i> <u>Past Par.</u> ,
Thou <i>may-st have</i>	<u>Past Par.</u> ,	
3. He <i>may have</i>	<u>Past Par.</u> ;	They <i>may have</i> <u>Past Par.</u> .

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I <i>might have</i>	<u>Past Par.</u> ,	1. We <i>might have</i> <u>Past Par.</u> ,
2. { You <i>might have</i>	<u>Past Par.</u> ,	2. You <i>might have</i> <u>Past Par.</u> ,
Thou <i>might-st have</i>	<u>Past Par.</u> ,	3. They <i>might have</i> <u>Past Par.</u> .

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I <u>Pres.</u> ,		1. If we <u>Pres.</u> ,
2. { If you <u>Pres.</u> ,		2. If you <u>Pres.</u> ,
If thou <u>Pres.</u> ,		
3. If he <u>Pres.</u> ;		3. If they <u>Pres.</u> .

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

2. Pres. (you or thou); 2. Pres. (you).

INFINITIVES.

PRESENT TENSE.

To Pres..

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

To *have* Past Par..

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT.

Pres. ing.

PAST.

Past Par.

PAST PERFECT.

Having Past Par.

To the Teacher.—Let the pupils fill out these forms with other verbs. In the indicative, present, third, singular, *es* is sometimes added instead of *s*; and in the second person, old style, *st* is sometimes added instead of *est*.

**LESSON 94.****CONJUGATION OF THE VERB BE.**

In studying this Lesson, pay no attention to the line at the right of each verb.

INDICATIVE MODE.**PRESENT TENSE.***Singular.*

1. I am _____,
2. { You are _____, or
Thou art _____,
3. He is _____;

Plural.

1. We are _____,
2. You are _____,
3. They are _____.

PAST TENSE.

1. I was _____,
2. { You were _____, or
Thou wast _____,
3. He was _____;

1. We were _____,
2. You were _____,
3. They were _____.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. I shall be _____,
2. { You will be _____, or
Thou wilt be _____,
3. He will be _____;

1. We shall be _____,
2. You will be _____,
3. They will be _____.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I have been _____,
2. { You have been _____, or
Thou hast been _____,
3. He has been;

Plural.

1. We have been _____,
2. You have been _____,
3. They have been _____.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I had been _____,
2. { You had been _____, or
Thou hadst been _____,
3. He had been _____;

1. We had been _____,
2. You had been _____,
3. They had been _____.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

1. I shall have been _____,
2. { You will have been _____, or
Thou wilt have been _____,
3. He will have been _____;

1. We shall have been _____,
2. You will have been _____,
3. They will have been _____.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may be _____,
2. { You may be _____, or
Thou mayst be _____,
3. He may be _____;

Plural.

1. We may be _____,
2. You may be _____,
3. They may be _____.

PAST TENSE.

1. I might be _____,
2. { You might be _____, or
Thou mightst be _____,
3. He might be _____;

1. We might be _____,
2. You might be _____,
3. They might be _____.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.*Singular.*

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I may have been _____, | 1. We may have been _____, |
| 2. { You may have been _____, or | 2. You may have been _____, |
| Thou mayst have been _____, | |
| 3. He may have been _____: | 3. They may have been _____. |

*Plural.***PAST PERFECT TENSE.**

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I might have been _____, | 1. We might have been _____, |
| 2. { You might have been _____, or | 2. You might have been _____, |
| Thou mightst have been _____, | |
| 3. He might have been _____; | 3. They might have been _____. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.**PRESENT TENSE.***Singular.*

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. If I be _____, | 1. If we be _____, |
| 2. { If you be _____, or | 2. If you be _____, |
| If thou be _____, | |
| 3. If he be _____; | 3. If they be _____. |

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. If I were _____, | 1. If we were _____, |
| 2. { If you were _____, or | 2. If you were _____, |
| If thou wert _____, | |
| 3. If he were _____; | 3. If they were _____. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.**PRESENT TENSE.**

2. Be (you *or* thou) _____: 2. Be (you) _____.

INFINITIVES.**PRESENT TENSE.**

To be _____.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

To have been ____.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT.

Being ____.

PAST.

Been.

PAST PERFECT.

Having been ____.

To the Teacher.—After the pupils have become thoroughly familiar with the verb *be* as a principal verb, teach them to use it as an auxiliary in making the **Progressive Form** and the **Passive Form**.

The *progressive form* may be made by filling all the blanks with the *present participle* of some verb.

The *passive form* may be made by filling all the blanks with the *past participle* of a *transitive verb*.

Notice that, after the past participle, no blank is left.

In the progressive form, this participle is wanting; and, in the passive form, it is the same as in the simple.

LESSON 95.**AGREEMENT OF THE VERB.**

To the Teacher.—For additional matter, see pp. 167, 171.

Remember that the verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

Give the person and number of each of the following verbs, and write sentences in which each form shall be used correctly.

Common forms.—Does, has=ha(ve)s, is, am, are, was, were.

Old forms.—Seest, sawest, hast=ha(ve)st, wilt, mayst, mightst, art, wast.

When a verb has two or more subjects connected by *and*, it must agree with them in the plural. *A similar rule applies to the agreement of the pronoun.*

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING ERRORS.

Model.—Poverty and obscurity *oppresses* him who thinks that *it is* oppressive.

Wrong: the verb *oppresses* should be changed to *oppress* to agree with its two subjects, connected by *and*. The pronoun *it* should be changed to *they* to agree with its two antecedents, and the verb *is* should be changed to *are* to agree with *they*.

Industry, energy, and good sense is essential to success.

Time and tide waits for no man.

The tall sunflower and the little violet is turning its face to the sun.

The mule and the horse was harnessed together.

Every green leaf and every blade of grass seem grateful.

Model.—The preceding sentence is wrong. The verb *seem* is plural, and it should be singular; for, when several singular subjects are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, they are taken separately.

Each day and each hour bring their portion of duty.

Every book and every paper were found in their place.

When a verb has two or more singular subjects connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with them in the singular. *A similar rule applies to the agreement of the pronoun.*

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING ERRORS.

One or the other have made a mistake in their statement.

Neither the aster nor the dahlia are cultivated for their fragrance.

Either the president or his secretary were responsible.

Neither Ann, Jane, nor Sarah are at home.

To foretell, or to express future time simply, the auxiliary *shall* is used in the first person, and *will* in the second and third; but when a speaker determines or promises, he uses *will* in the first person and *shall* in the second and third.

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING ERRORS.

I will freeze, if I do not move about.

You shall feel better soon, I think.

She shall be fifteen years old to-morrow.

I shall find it for you, if you shall bring the book to me.

You will have it, if I can get it for you.
He will have it, if he shall take the trouble to ask for it.
He will not do it, if I can prevent him.
I will drown, nobody shall help me.
I will be obliged to you, if you shall attend to it.
We will have gone by to-morrow morning.
You shall disappoint your father, if you do not return.
I do not think I will like the change.
Next Tuesday shall be your birthday.
You shall be late, if you do not hurry.

LESSON 96.

ERRORS IN THE FORM OF THE VERB.

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING ERRORS.

Model.—Those things *have* not *came* *to-day*.

Wrong, because the past *came* is here used for the past participle *come*. The present perfect tense is formed by prefixing *have* to the *past participle*.

I done all my work before breakfast.
I come in a little late yesterday.
He has went to my desk without permission.
That stupid fellow set down on my new hat.
Set is generally transitive, and *sit* is intransitive. *Lay* is transitive, and *lie* is intransitive.

He sat the chair in the corner.
Sit that plate on the table, and let it set.
I have set in this position a long time.
That child will not lay still or set still a minute.
I laid down under the tree, and enjoyed the scenery.
Lie that stick on the table, and let it lay.
Those boys were drove out of the fort three times.
I have rode through the park.
I done what I could.

He has not spoke to-day.
 The leaves have fell from the trees.
 This sentence is wrote badly.
 He throwed his pen down, and said that the point was broke.
 He teached me grammar.
 I seen him when he done it.
 My hat was took off my head, and throwed out of the window.
 The bird has flew into that tall tree.
 I was chose leader.
 I have began to do better. I begun this morning.
 My breakfast was ate in a hurry.
 Your dress sets well.
 That foolish old hen is setting on a wooden egg.
 He has tore it up and throwed it away.
 William has took my knife, and I am afraid he has stole it.
 This should be well shook.
 I begun to sing, before I knewed what I was doing.
 We drunk from a pure spring.
 I thought you had forsook us.
 His pencil is nearly wore up.
 He come, and tell me all he knowed about it.

LESSON 97.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

To the Teacher.—See “Scheme,” p. 191.

How many modifications have verbs? Ans.—*Five; viz., voice, mode, tense, number, and person.* Define voice. How many voices are there? Define each. Illustrate. What is mode? How many modes are there? Define each. What is an infinitive? What is a participle? How many different kinds of participles are there? Define each. Illustrate. What is tense? How many tenses are there? Define each. Illustrate. What are the number and the person of a verb? Illustrate. What is conjugation? What is synopsis? What are auxiliaries? Name the auxiliaries. What are the principal parts of a verb? Why are they so called? How does a verb agree with its sub-

ject? When a verb has two or more subjects, how does it agree? Illustrate the uses of *shall* and *will*.

To the Teacher.—Select some of the preceding exercises, and require the pupils to write the parsing of all the verbs. See Lessons 34, 35, 48, 49, and 56.

Model for Written Parsing—Verbs.—*The Yankee, selling his farm, wanders away to seek new lands.*

CLASSIFICATION.		MODIFICATIONS.					SYNTAX.	
Verbs.	Kind.	Voice.	Mode.	Tense.	Num.	Per.		
*selling	Pr. Par., Ir., Tr.	Ac.	Ind.	Pres.	Sing.	2d.	Mod. of <i>Yankee</i> .	
wanders	Reg., Int.	—	—	“	—	—	Pred. of “	
*seek	Inf., Ir., Tr.	Ac.	—	—	—	—	Prin. word in phrase	
							Mod. of <i>wandere</i> .	

LESSON 98.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

Participles sometimes partake of the nature of the noun, while they retain the nature of the verb.

Build each of the following phrases into a sentence, and explain the nature of the participle.

Model. — *in building a snow fort.* They were engaged *in building a snow fort.* The participle *building*, like a noun, follows the preposition *in*, as the principal word in the phrase; and, like a verb, it takes the object complement *fort*.

— by foretelling storms. — by helping others. — on approaching the house. — in catching fish.

Use the following phrases as subjects.

Walking in the garden —. His writing that letter —. Breaking a promise —.

Build each of the following phrases into a complex sen-

* Participles and Infinitives have no subject, and, consequently, no person or number.

tence. Let some of the dependent clauses be used as adjectives, and some, as adverbs.

_____ in sledges. _____ up the Hudson. _____ down the Rhine. _____ through the Alps. _____ with snow and ice. _____ into New York Bay. _____ on the prairie. _____ at Saratoga.

Build a short sentence containing all the parts of speech.

Expand the following simple sentence into twelve sentences.

Astronomy teaches the size, form, nature, and motions of the sun, moon, and stars.

Contract the following awkward compound sentence into a neat simple sentence.

Hannibal passed through Gaul, and then he crossed the Alps, and then came down into Italy, and then he defeated several Roman generals.

Change the following complex sentences to compound sentences.

When he asked me the question, I answered him courteously.

Morse, the man who invented the telegraph, was a public benefactor.

When spring comes, the birds will return.

Contract the following complex sentences into simple sentences by changing the verb in the dependent clause to a participle. Notice all the other changes.

A ship which was gliding along the horizon attracted our attention.

I saw a man who was plowing a field.

When the shower had passed, we went on our way.

I heard that he wrote that article.

That he was a foreigner was well known.

I am not sure that he did it.

Every pupil who has an interest in this work will prepare for it.

Change the following compound sentences to complex sentences.

Model.—Morning dawns, and the clouds disperse.
When morning dawns, the clouds disperse.

Avoid swearing; it is a wicked habit.

Pearls are valuable, and they are found in oyster shells.

Dickens wrote David Copperfield, and he died in 1870.

Some animals are vertebrates, and they have a backbone.

Expand each of the following sentences as much as you can.

Indians dance.

The clock struck.

The world moves.

LESSON 99.

MISCELLANEOUS ERRORS.

CORRECT THE FOLLOWING ERRORS.

I have got that book at home.

Model.—Wrong, because *have*, alone, asserts possession. *Got*, used in the sense of *obtained*, is correct; as, *I have just got the book*.

Have you got time to help me?

There is many mistakes in my composition.

Model.—Wrong, because *is* should agree with its plural subject *mistakes*. The adverb *there* is often used to introduce a sentence, that the subject may follow the predicate. This often makes the sentence sound smooth, and gives variety.

There goes my mother and sister.

Here comes the soldiers.

There was many friends to greet him.

It ain't there.

Model.—*Ain't* is a vulgar contraction. Correction—It *is not* there.

I have made up my mind that it ain't no use.

'Tain't so bad as you think.

Two years' interest were due.

Every one of his acts were criticised.

I, Henry, and you have been chosen.

Model.—Wrong, for politeness requires that you should mention the one spoken to, first; the one spoken of, next; and yourself, last.

The dog and I and father went a-hunting.
 Me and Jane are going to the fair.
 I only want a little piece.
 He is a handsome, tall man.
 Did you sleep good ?
 How much trouble one has, don't they ?
 He inquired for some tinted ladies' note-paper.
 You needn't ask me nothing about it,
 for I haven't got no time to answer.
 Him that is diligent will succeed.
 He found the place sooner than me.
 Who was that ? It was me and him.
 If I was her, I would say less.
 Bring me them tongs.
 Us boys have a base-ball club.
 Whom did you say that it was ?
 Who did you speak to just now ?
 Who did you mean, when you said that ?
 Where was you when I called ?
 There's twenty of us going.
 Circumstances alters cases.
 Tell them to set still.
 He laid down by the fire.
 She has lain her book aside.
 It takes him everlastingly.
 That was an elegant old rock.

LESSON 100.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

1. Thou shalt not take the name of the Lord thy God in vain.
2. Strike ! till the last armed foe expires !
3. You wrong me, Brutus.

4. Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction ?
 5. Why stand we here idle ?
 6. Give me liberty, or give me death !
 7. Thy mercy, O Lord, is in the heavens, and thy faithfulness reacheth unto the clouds.
 8. The clouds poured out water, the skies sent out a sound, the voice of thy thunder was in the heaven.
 9. The heavens declare his righteousness, and all the people see his glory.
 10. The verdant lawn, the shady grove, the variegated landscape, the boundless ocean, and the starry firmament are beautiful and magnificent objects.
 11. When you grind your corn, give not the flour to the devil and the bran to God.
 12. That which the fool does in the end, the wise man does at the beginning.
 13. Xerxes commanded the largest army that was ever brought into the field.
 14. Without oxygen, fires would cease to burn, and all animals would immediately die.
 15. Liquids, when acted upon by gravity, press downward, upward, and sideways.
 16. Matter exists in three states—the solid state, the liquid state, and the gaseous state.
 17. The blending of the seven prismatic colors produces white light.
 18. Soap-bubbles, when they are exposed to light, exhibit colored rings.
 19. *He who yields to temptation debases himself with a debasement from which he can never arise.
 20. *Young eyes that last year smiled in ours
Now point the rifle's barrel;
And hands then stained with fruits and flowers
Bear redder stains of quarrel.
-

● * See "Model Diagrams," page 93.

CAPITAL LETTERS AND PUNCTUATION.

Capital Letters.—The first word of (1) a sentence, (2) a line of poetry, (3) a direct quotation making complete sense or a direct question introduced into a sentence, and (4) phrases or clauses separately numbered or paragraphed should begin with a capital letter. Begin with a capital letter (5) proper names and words derived from them, (6) names of things personified, and (7) most abbreviations. Write in capital letters (8) the words *I* and *O*, and (9) numbers in the Roman notation.*

Examples.—1. The judicious are always a minority.

2. Honor and shame from no condition rise;

Act well your part, there all the honor lies.

3. The question is, “Can law make people honest?” 4. Paintings are useful for these reasons: 1. They please; 2. They instruct. 5. The heroic Nelson destroyed the French fleet in Aboukir Bay. 6. Next, Anger rushed, his eyes on fire. 7. The Atlantic ocean beat Mrs. Partington. 8. The use of *O* and *oh* I am now to explain. 9. Napoleon II. never came to the throne.

Period.—Place a period after (1) a declarative or an imperative sentence, (2) an abbreviation, and (3) a number written in the Roman notation.

For examples see 1, 7, and 9 in the sentences above.

Interrogation Point.—Every direct interrogative sentence or clause should be followed by an interrogation point.

Example.—King Agrippa, believest thou the prophets?

Exclamation Point.—All exclamatory expressions must be followed by the exclamation point.

Example.—Oh! bloodiest picture in the book of time!

* Small letters are preferred where numerous references to chapters, etc., are made.

Comma.—Set off by the comma (1) a phrase out of its natural order or not closely connected with the word it modifies; (2) an explanatory modifier that does not restrict the modified term or combine closely with it; (3) a participle used as an adjective modifier, with the words belonging to it, unless restrictive; (4) the adjective clause, when not restrictive; (5) the adverb clause, unless it closely follows and restricts the word it modifies; (6) a word or phrase independent or nearly so; (7) a direct quotation introduced into a sentence, unless *formally* introduced; (8) a noun clause used as an attribute complement; and (9) a term connected to another by *or* and having the same meaning. Separate by the comma (10) connected words and phrases, unless all the conjunctions are expressed; (11) independent clauses, when short and closely connected; and (12) the parts of a compound predicate and of other phrases, when long or differently modified.

Examples.—1. In the distance, icebergs look like masses of burnished metal. 2. Alexandria, the capital of Lower Egypt, is an ill-looking city. 3. Labor, diving deep into the earth, brings up long-hidden stores of coal. 4. The sun, which is the center of our system, is millions of miles from us. 5. When beggars die, there are no comets seen. 6. Gentlemen, this, then, is your verdict. 7. God said, "Let there be light." 8. Nelson's signal was, "England expects every man to do his duty." 9. Rubbers, or overshoes, are worn to keep the feet dry. 10. The sable, the seal, and the otter furnish us rich furs. 11. His dark eye flashed, his proud breast heaved, his cheek's hue came and went. 12. Flights of birds darken the air, and tempt the traveler with the promise of abundant provisions.

Semicolon.—Independent clauses (1) when slightly connected, or (2) when themselves divided by the comma, must be separated by the semicolon. Use the semicolon (3) between serial phrases or clauses having a common dependence

on something that precedes or follows; and (4) before *as*, *viz.*, *to wit.*, *namely*, *i. e.*, and *that is*, when they introduce examples or illustrations.

Examples.—1. The furnace blazes ; the anvil rings ; the busy wheels whirl round. 2. As Cæsar loved me, I weep for him ; as he was fortunate, I rejoice at it ; as he was valiant, I honor him ; but, as he was ambitious, I slew him. 3. He drew a picture of the sufferings of our Saviour ; his trial before Pilate ; his ascent of Calvary ; his crucifixion and death. 4. Gibbon writes, “I have been sorely afflicted with gout in the hand ; to wit, laziness.”

Colon.—Use the colon (1) between the parts of a sentence when these parts are themselves divided by the semicolon ; and (2) before a quotation or an enumeration of particulars when *formally* introduced.

Examples.—1. Canning’s features were handsome ; his eye, though deeply ensconced under his eyebrows, was full of sparkle and gayety : the features of Brougham were harsh in the extreme. 2. To Lentullus and Gellius bear this message : “Their graves are measured.”

Dash.—Use the dash where there is an omission (1) of letters or figures, and (2) of such words as *as*, *namely*, or *that is*, introducing illustrations or equivalent expressions. Use the dash (3) where the sentence breaks off abruptly, and the same thought is resumed after a slight suspension, or another takes its place ; and (4) before a word or phrase repeated at intervals for emphasis. The dash may be used (5) instead of marks of parenthesis, and may (6) follow other marks, adding to their force.

Examples.—1. In M——w, v. 3–11, you may find the “beatitudes.” 2. There are two things certain in this world—taxes and death. 3. I said—I know not what. 4. I never would lay down my arms—*never—NEVER—NEVER*. 5. Fulton started a steamboat—he called it the

Clermont—on the Hudson in 1807. 6. My dear Sir,—I write this letter for information.

Marks of Parenthesis.—Marks of parenthesis may be used to enclose what has no essential connection with the rest of the sentence.

Example.—The noun (Lat. *nomen*, a name) is the first part of speech.

Apostrophe.—Use the apostrophe (1) to mark the omission of letters, (2) in the pluralizing of letters, figures, and characters, and (3) to distinguish the possessive from other cases.

Examples.—1. Bo't of John Jones 10 lbs. of butter. 2. What word is there one-half of which is *p's*? 3. He washed the disciples' feet.

Hyphen.—Use the hyphen (-) (1) between the parts of compound words that have not become consolidated, and (2) between syllables when a word is divided.

Examples.—1. Work-baskets are convenient. 2. Divide *basket* thus: *bas-ket*.

Quotation Marks.—Use quotation marks to enclose a copied word or passage. If the quotation contains a quotation, the latter is enclosed within single marks.

Example—The sermon closed with this sentence : “God said, ‘Let there be light.’”

Brackets.—Use brackets [] to enclose what, in quoting another's words, you insert by way of explanation or correction.

Example.—The Psalmist says, “I prevented [anticipated] the dawning of the morning.”

SENTENCES AND PARAGRAPHS.

To the Teacher.—It is very profitable to exercise pupils in combining simple statements into complex and compound sentences, and in resolving complex and compound sentences into simple statements. In combining statements, it is an excellent practice for the pupil to contract, expand, transpose, and to substitute different words. They thus learn to express the same thought in a variety of ways. Any reading-book or history will furnish good material for such practice. A few examples are given below.

Direction.—Combine in as many ways as possible each of the following groups of sentences :—

Example.—This man is to be pitied. He has no friends.

1. This man has no friends, and he is to be pitied.
 2. This man is to be pitied, because he has no friends.
 3. Because this man has no friends, he is to be pitied.
 4. This man, who has no friends, is to be pitied.
 5. This man, having no friends, is to be pitied.
 6. This man, without friends, is to be pitied.
 7. This friendless man deserves our pity.
1. The ostrich is unable to fly. It has not wings in proportion to its body.
 2. Egypt is a fertile country. It is annually inundated by the Nile.
 3. The nerves are little threads, or fibers. They extend from the brain. They spread over the whole body.
 4. John Gutenberg published a book. It was the first book known to have been printed on a printing-press. He was aided by the patronage of John Faust. He published it in 1455. He published it in the city of Mentz.
 5. The human body is a machine. A watch is delicately constructed. This machine is more delicately constructed. A steam-engine is complicated. This machine is more complicated. A steam-engine is wonderful. This machine is more wonderful.

You see that short statements closely related in meaning may be improved by being combined. But young writers frequently use too many *ands* and other connectives, and make their sentences too long.

Long sentences should be broken up into short ones when the relations of the parts are not clear.

As clauses may be joined to form sentences, so sentences may be united to make *paragraphs*.

A *paragraph* is a sentence or a group of related sentences developing one point or one division of a general subject.

The first word of a paragraph should begin a new line, and should be written a little farther to the right than the first words of other lines.

Direction.—Combine the following statements into sentences and paragraphs, and make of them a complete composition:—

Water is a liquid. It is composed of oxygen and hydrogen. It covers about three-fourths of the surface of the earth. It takes the form of ice. It takes the form of snow. It takes the form of vapor. The air is constantly taking up water from rivers, lakes, oceans, and from damp ground. Cool air contains moisture. Heated air contains more moisture. Heated air becomes lighter. It rises. It becomes cool. The moisture is condensed into fine particles. Clouds are formed. They float across the sky. The little particles unite and form rain-drops. They sprinkle the dry fields. At night the grass and flowers become cool. The air is not so cool. The warm air touches the grass and flowers. It is chilled. It loses a part of its moisture. Drops of dew are formed. Water has many uses. Men and animals drink it. Trees and plants drink it. They drink it by means of their leaves and roots. Water is a great purifier. It cleanses our bodies. It washes our clothes. It washes the dust from the leaves and the flowers. Water is a great worker. It floats vessels. It turns the wheels of mills. It is converted into steam. It is harnessed to mighty engines. It does the work of thousands of men and horses.

To the Teacher.—Condensed statements of facts, taken from some book not in the hands of your pupils, may be read to them, and they may be required to expand and combine these and group them into paragraphs.

LETTER-WRITING.

In writing a letter there are six things to consider—the *Heading*, the *Introduction*, the *Body of the Letter*, the *Conclusion*, the *Folding*, and the *Superscription*.

THE HEADING.

Parts.—The Heading consists of the name of the *Place* at which the letter is written, and the *Date*. If you write from a city, give the door-number, the name of the street, the name of the city, and the name of the state. If you are at a hotel or a school, or any other well-known institution, its name may take the place of the door-number and the name of the street. If you write from a village or other country place, give your post-office address, the name of the county, and that of the state.

The Date consists of the month, the day of the month, and the year.

How Written.—Begin the Heading about an inch and a half from the top of the page—on the first ruled line of commercial note—and a little to the left of the middle of the page. If the Heading is very short, it may stand on one line. If it occupies more than one line, the second line should begin farther to the right than the first, and the third farther to the right than the second.

The Date stands upon a line by itself if the Heading occupies two or more lines.

The door-number, the day of month, and the year are written in figures, the rest in words. Each important word begins with a capital letter, each item is set off by the comma, and the whole closes with a period.

Direction.—Study what has been said, and write the following headings according to these models:—

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Hull, Mass., Nov. 1, 1860. | 3. Newburyport, Mass., |
| 2. 1466 Colorado Ave.,
Rochester, N. Y., | June 30, 1826. |
| Apr. 3, 1870. | 4. Starkville, Herkimer Co., N. Y.,
Dec. 19, 1871. |

1. n y rondout 11 1849 oct. 2. staten island port richmond 1877 25 january. 3. brooklyn march 1871 mansion house 29. 4. executive chamber vt february montpelier 1869 27. 5. washington franklin co mo nov 16 1874. 6. fifth ave may new york 460 9 1863. 7. washington d c march 1847 520 pennsylvania ave 16.

THE INTRODUCTION.

Parts.—The Introduction consists of the *Address*—the Name, the Title, and the Place of Business or the Residence of the one addressed—and the *Salutation*. Titles of respect and courtesy should appear in the Address. Prefix *Mr.* to a man's name; *Messrs.* to the names of several gentlemen; *Miss* to the name of a young lady; *Mrs.* to that of a married lady. Prefix *Dr.* to the name of a physician, but never *Mr. Dr.*; *Rev.* (or *The Rev.*) to the name of a clergyman, or *Rev. Mr.*, if you do not know his Christian name; *Rev. Dr.*, if he is a Doctor of Divinity, or write *Rev.* before the name and *D.D.* after it. A married lady may take the title of her husband; as, *Mrs. Dr. Smith*, *Mrs. Secretary Evarts*, *Mrs. Gen. W. T. Sherman*. If two literary or professional titles are added to a name, let them stand in the order in which they were conferred—this is the order of a few common ones: *A.M.*, *Ph.D.*, *D.D.*, *LL.D.*

Salutations vary with the station of the one addressed, or the writer's degree of intimacy with him. Strangers may be addressed as *Sir*, *Rev. Sir*, *General*, *Madam*, etc.; acquaintances as *Dear Sir*, *Dear Madam*, etc.; friends as *My*

dear Sir, My dear Madam, My dear Jones, etc.; and near relatives and other dear friends as My dear Wife, My dear Boy, Dearest Ellen, etc.

How Written.—The Address may follow the Heading, beginning on the next line, or the next but one, and standing on the left side of the page; or it may stand in corresponding position after the Body of the Letter and the Conclusion. If the letter is written to a very intimate friend, the Address may appropriately be placed at the bottom of the letter; but in other letters, especially those on ordinary business, it should be placed at the top and as directed above. There should always be a narrow margin on the left-hand side of the page, and the Address should always begin on the marginal line. If the Address occupies more than one line, the initial words of these lines should slope to the right, as in the Heading.

Begin the Salutation on the marginal line or a little to the right of it, when the Address occupies three lines; on the marginal line or farther to the right than the second line of the Address begins, when this occupies two lines; a little to the right of the marginal line, when the Address occupies one line; on the marginal line, when the Address stands below.

Every important word in the Address should begin with a capital letter. All the items of it should be set off by the comma, and, as it is an abbreviated sentence, it should close with a period. Every important word in the Salutation should begin with a capital letter, and the whole should be followed by a comma.

Direction.—Study what has been said, and write the following introductions according to these models:—

-
- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Dear Father, | 3. Messrs. Clark & Brown, |
| I write, etc. | Quogue, N. Y. |
| 2. The Rev. M. H. Buckingham, D.D., | Gentlemen, |
| President of U. V. M., | 4. Messrs. Tiffany & Co., |
| Burlington, Vt. | 2 Milk St., Boston. |
| My dear Sir, | Dear Sirs, |
1. david h cochrane lld president of polytechnic institute brooklyn n y dear sir. 2. dr john h hobart burge 64 livingston st brooklyn n y sir. 3. prof geo n boardman chicago ill dear teacher. 4. to the president executive mansion washington d c mr president. 5. rev t k beecher elmira n y sir. 6. messrs gilbert & sons gentlemen mass boston. 7. mr george r curtis minn rochester my friend dear. 8. to the honorable wm m evarts secretary of state washington d c sir.

THE BODY OF THE LETTER.

The Beginning.—Begin the Body of the Letter at the end of the Salutation, and on the *same* line, if the Introduction consists of four lines—in which case the comma after the Salutation should be followed by a dash;—otherwise, on the line *below*.

Style.—Be perspicuous. Paragraph and punctuate as in other kinds of writing. Spell correctly; write legibly, neatly, and with care.

Letters of friendship should be colloquial, natural, and familiar. Whatever is interesting to you will be interesting to your friends.

Business letters should be brief, and the sentences should be short, concise, and to the point.

In *formal notes* the third person is generally used instead of the first and the second; there is no Introduction, no Conclusion, no Signature, only the name of the Place and the Date at the bottom, on the left side of the page.

THE CONCLUSION.

Parts.—The Conclusion consists of the *Complimentary Close* and the *Signature*. The forms of the Complimentary Close are many, and are determined by the relations of the writer to the one addressed. In letters of *friendship* you may use *Your sincere friend*; *Yours affectionately*; *Your loving son or daughter*, etc. In business letters, you may use *Yours*; *Yours truly*; *Truly yours*; *Yours respectfully*; *Very respectfully yours*, etc. In *official letters* use *I have the honor to be, Sir, your obedient servant*; *Very respectfully, your most obedient servant*.

The Signature consists of your Christian name and your surname. In addressing a stranger write your Christian name in full. A lady addressing a stranger should prefix her title—*Miss* or *Mrs.*—to her own name, enclosing it within marks of parenthesis, if she prefers.

How Written.—The Conclusion should begin near the middle of the first line below the Body of the Letter, and should slope to the right like the Heading and the Address. Begin each line of it with a capital letter, and punctuate as in other writing, following the whole with a period. The Signature should be very plain.

THE FOLDING.

The Folding is a simple matter when, as now, the envelope used is adapted in length to the width of the sheet. Take the letter as it lies before you, with its first page uppermost, turn up the bottom of it about one-third the length of the sheet, bring the top down over this, taking care that the sides are even, and press the parts together.

Taking the envelope with its back up, insert the letter, putting in first the edge last folded.

The form of the envelope may require the letter to be folded in the middle. Other conditions may require other ways of folding.

THE SUPERSCRIPTION.

Parts.—The Superscription is what is written on the outside of the envelope. It is the same as the Address, consisting of the Name, the Title, and the full Directions of the one addressed.

How Written.—The Superscription should begin near the middle of the envelope and near the left edge—the envelope lying with its closed side toward you—and should occupy three or four lines. These lines should slope to the right as in the Heading and the Address, the spaces between the lines should be the same, and the last line should end near the lower right-hand corner. On the first line the Name and the Title should stand. If the one addressed is in a city, the door-number and name of the street should be on the second line, the name of the city on the third, and the name of the state on the fourth. If he is in the country, the name of the post-office should be on the second line, the name of the county on the third (or by itself near the lower left-hand corner), and the name of the state on the fourth. The titles following the name should be separated from it and from each other by the comma, and every line should end with a comma, except the last, which should be followed by a period. The lines should be straight, and every part of the Superscription should be legible. Place the stamp at the upper right-hand corner.

LETTER, ORDERING MERCHANDISE.

Newburgh, N.Y.

Jan. 7. 1888.

Messrs. Hyde & Co.,

250 Broadway, N.Y.

Gentlemen.

Please send me by Adams Express the articles mentioned in the enclosed list.

Be careful in the selection of the goods, as I desire them for a special class of customers. When they are forwarded, please inform me by letter and enclose the invoice.

Yours in haste,

Thomas Dodds.

ANSWER, ENCLOSING INVOICE.

250 Broadway, N.Y.
Jan. 9. 1888.

Mr. Thomas Dodds,

Newburgh, N.Y.

Dear Sir,

We have to-day sent you by Adams Express the goods ordered in your letter of the 7th inst. Enclosed you will find the invoice.

We hope that everything will reach you in good condition and will prove satisfactory in quality and in price.

Very truly yours,

Peter Hyde & Co.

INVOICE

Thomas Dodds,

Bought of Peter Hyde & Co.

3 boxes Sperm Candles, 140 lbs.,	@ 33c.	\$46	20
7 do. Adamantine Extra Candles, 182 lbs.,	" 26c.	47	32
120 lbs. Crushed Sugar,	" 12½c.	15	00
60 do. Coffee do.,	" 11¼c.	6	75
		\$115	27

LETTER OF APPLICATION.

176 Clinton St., Brooklyn, N.Y.
Dec. 12, 1887.

Messrs. Fish & Hatch,

5 Nassau St., N.Y.

Gentlemen:

Learning by advertisement that a clerkship in your house is vacant, I beg leave to offer myself as a candidate for the place. I am sixteen years old, and am strong and in excellent health. I have just graduated with honor from the seventh grade of the Polytechnic Institute, Brooklyn, and I enclose testimonials of my character and standing from the President of that Institution.

If you desire a personal interview, I shall be glad to present myself at such time and place as you may name.

Very respectfully,

Charles Hastings.

NOTES OF INVITATION AND ACCEPTANCE
(in the third person).

*Mr. and Mrs. Brooks request
the pleasure of Mr. Churchill's company at a social gathering,
next Tuesday evening, at 8 o'clock.*

Mr. Churchill will be most happy to accept Mr. and Mrs. Brooks's kind invitation to a social gathering, next Tuesday evening.

32 W. 31st Street, Oct. 5.

160 Fifth Ave., Oct. 5.

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION.

Concord, N.H.

Jan. 10, 1885.

*George Chapman, Esq.
Portland, Conn.*

My dear Friend,

It gives me great pleasure to introduce to you my friend, Mr. Alpheus Crane. Any attentions you may be able to show him I shall esteem as a personal favor.

*Sincerely yours,
Peter Cooper.*

A LETTER OF FRIENDSHIP.

21 Dean St., Toledo, Ohio.

Dec. 16, 1887.

My dear Mother,

I cannot tell you how I long to be at home again and in my old place. In my dreams and in my waking hours, I am often back at the old homestead: my thoughts play truant while I pore over my books, and even while I listen to my teacher in the class-room. I would give so much to know what you are all doing—so much to feel that now and then I am in your thoughts, and that you do indeed "miss me at home."

Everything here is as pleasant as it need be or can be, I suppose. I am

sure I shall enjoy it all by and by,
when I get over this fit of homesickness.
My studies are not too hard, and
my teachers are kind and faithful!

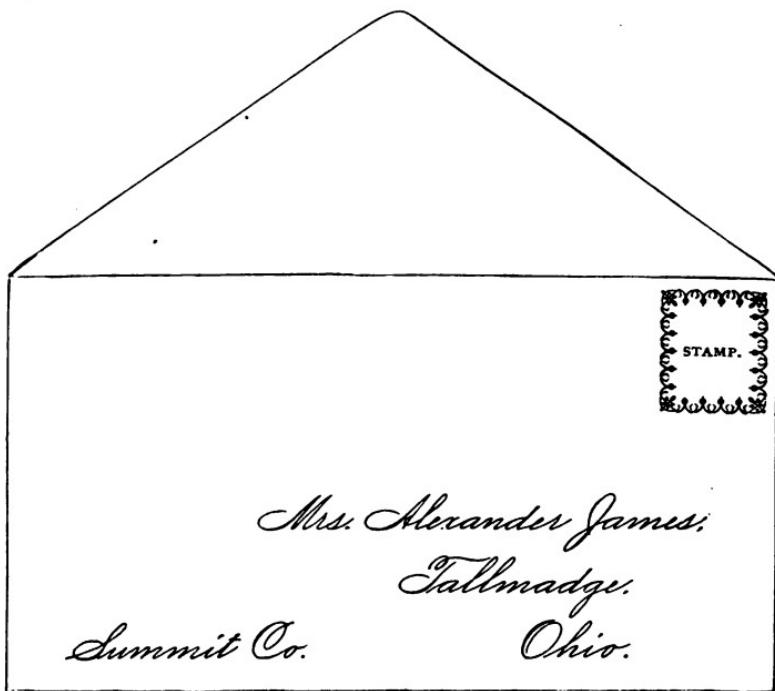
Do write me a long letter as soon as
you get this, and tell me everything.
Much love to each of the dear ones
at home.

Your affectionate son,

Henry James.

Mrs. Alexander James,
Fallmadge, Ohio.

* In familiar (and official) letters, the Address may stand, you will remember,
at the bottom.



To the Teacher.—Have your pupils write complete letters and notes of all kinds. You can name the persons to whom these are to be addressed. Attend minutely to all the points. Letters of introduction should have the word *Introducing* (followed by the name of the one introduced) at the lower left-hand corner of the envelope. This letter should not be sealed. The receiver may seal it before handing it to the one addressed.

Continue this work of letter-writing until the pupils have mastered all the details, and are able easily and quickly to write any ordinary letter.

A SUMMARY OF THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

I. A noun or pronoun used as subject or as attribute complement of a predicate verb, or used independently, is in the nominative case.

II. The attribute complement of a participle or an infinitive is in the same case (Nom. or Obj.) as the word to which it relates.

III. A noun or pronoun used as possessive modifier is in the possessive case.

IV. A noun or pronoun used as object or objective complement, or as the principal word of a prepositional phrase, is in the objective case.

V. A noun or pronoun used as explanatory modifier is in the same case as the word explained.

VI. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.

With two or more antecedents connected by *and*, the pronoun is plural.

With two or more singular antecedents connected by *or* or *nor*, the pronoun is singular.

VII. A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

With two or more subjects connected by *and*, the verb is plural.

With two or more singular subjects connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb is singular.

VIII. A participle assumes the action or being, and is used like an adjective or a noun.

IX. An infinitive is generally introduced by *to*, and with it forms a phrase used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

X. Adjectives modify nouns or pronouns.

XI. Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or adverbs.

XII. A preposition introduces a phrase modifier, and shows the relation, in sense, of its principal word to the word modified.

XIII. Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or clauses.

XIV. Interjections are used independently.

PROOF-MARKS.

Remark.—The following are some of the marks used in correcting proof-sheets for the printer:—

§ Dē-le = Strike out.

^ Cā-ret = Something to be inserted.

/ This calls attention to points or letters placed in the margin as corrections.

○ This calls attention to the period.

tr. Transpose.

¶ Begin a new paragraph with the word preceded by [.

No ¶ No new paragraph.

✓ This calls attention to the apostrophe.

To the Teacher.—We suggest that the pupils learn to use these marks in correcting compositions. The following exercises are given as illustrations:—

§ ○ Capt. James P. Eads.

○ M St. Louis, Mo.

/ ○ Hon. Andrew D. White, LL.D.

/ ○ Ithaca, N.Y.

§ / Miss, Kate Field.

S C Salt Lake City,
Utah.

C. 1 Ocala, Marion Co., Fla.,
 Jan. 10, '88.

d/ My Dear Friend,

Yours of the
d/ 10 27th Inst. was welcome.

No 9 Now I enjoyed the story
of your Christmas vacation!

You are an excellent letter-

writer. [My vacation was spent
quietly, but with St. Nicholas,
"The Youth's Companion," and
"Nights with Uncle Remus"
one could be hardly dull.

Very sincerely yours,

David Copperfield.

Samuel Gulliver,

San Diego, Cal.

Maurer



NOTES FOR TEACHERS.

AGREEMENT.

BEFORE Lesson 8 is assigned, the pupils may be required to note, in Lessons 6 and 7, the subjects that add *s* to denote more than one, and then to mark the changes that occur in the predicates when the *s* is dropped from these subjects. In Lesson 8, the predicates may be changed by adding or dropping *s*, and other subjects may be found to correspond. In Lesson 9, *s* may be dropped from the plural subjects, and other predicates may be found to agree.

At this stage of the work we should give no formal rules, and should avoid such technical terms as *number*, *person*, *tense*, etc. The pupils may be led to discover rules for themselves, and to state them informally. Exercises and questions may be so directed that the pupils may draw some such conclusion as the following :—

When a simple form of the verb is used to tell what one thing does, *s* or *es* is added (unless the subject is *I* or *you*).

Let the pupils see that the *s*-form of the verb is used only in telling what one thing *does*, not what it *did*; as, "The boy *runs*," "The boy *ran*"; and that its subject always stands for the one spoken of; as, "*He runs*," "*I run*."

Before Lesson 12 is assigned, attention may be called to the use of *is*, *was*, and *has*, in Lesson 11 and elsewhere. For the predicates introduced by these words let the pupils find subjects which name more than one, that they may note the change of *is* to *are*, *was* to *were*, and *has* to *have*. The forms *does* and *do* may also be introduced, and these exercises continued till the pupils are led to discover some such rule as the following :—

Is, was, has, and does are used with subjects denoting but one. *Are, were, have, and do* are used with subjects denoting more than one.

We suggest that the form of a question and the use of the question mark be introduced after Lesson 12, and that the pupils be allowed to

change the sentences in Lessons 11 and 12 by placing the subject after the first auxiliary. A straight line may be drawn under each subject, and a waving line under each predicate, thus :—

Was Napoleon banished?

The sentences given for analysis will furnish material for making interrogative sentences, and for justifying the agreement of verbs.

In connection with Lesson 19 attention may be called to the agreement of verbs with *I* and *you*. Exercises may be given from which the pupils will draw the following conclusions :—

I can be used with *am*, *was*, *have*, and *do*. *You* may mean one or more than one, but the verb always agrees as if *you* meant more than one.

Exercises may be given requiring the pupils to use such expressions as "You *were*," "They *were*," "We *were*," "He *doesn't*," etc., and to repeat them aloud till the ear is accustomed to the right form.

When predicate verbs immediately follow their subjects, there is little danger of errors in agreement, except that *was* is often used incorrectly for *were*, and *don't* for *doesn't*. The chief object of introducing these exercises here is to train the pupils' observation so that they will readily and naturally note the agreement of the subject and predicate when these terms are transposed, or are separated by other words. To determine the correct form of the verb in such cases, let the pupils see how it sounds when placed immediately after its subject. We suggest exercises like the following :—

1 is are	2 was were	3 has have	4 does do
5 comes come	6 goes go	7 thinks think	8 writes write

1. With what kind of letter (4) each of these names begin?
2. Under this rule (1) found important exceptions.
3. The *farm*, with all the cattle and horses, (2) sold.
4. With what mark (4) imperative sentences end?

5. Every *effort* of the friends of these measures (3) failed.
6. There (5) trying *times* in every man's life.
7. One of them (6) to Vassar College.
8. Not *one* in ten (7) about this.
9. Neither of you (8) correctly.
10. After this (5) the calisthenic *exercises*.
11. A *cargo* of Delaware peaches (3) arrived.
12. There (6) the cars.
13. There (6) a *train* of cars.

After these blanks have been filled with the verbs above, as indicated by the numbers, the sentences may be repeated aloud till the correct form is familiar.

Let the pupils see that in (2), Lesson 36, *were identified* is asserted of two things, and that in (3) *was anticipated* is asserted of one of two things, but not of both. Let them give other examples of connected subjects with verbs singular in form, and with verbs plural in form. The meaning of *singular* and *plural* may be explained, and the pupils may form some such rule as the following :—

With two or more subjects connected by *and* the verb agrees in the plural.

With two or more singular subjects connected by *or* or *nor* the verb agrees in the singular.

The pupils may examine such sentences as—

1. Each word and gesture *was* suited to the thought ;
2. Every bud, leaf, and blade of grass *rejoices* after the warm rain ;
3. No dew, no rain, no cloud comes to the relief of the parched earth ;—

and note that *each*, *every*, and *no* show that the things named in the different subjects are taken separately, and that the verbs are therefore singular.

Such sentences as—

“ In the death of Franklin, a philosopher and statesman was lost to the world ”—

may be given to show that subjects connected by *and* may name the same thing, and so take a verb in the singular.

Such examples as the following may be given and justified :—

1. Beauty and utility *are* combined in nature.
2. Either beauty or utility *appears* in every natural object.
3. Here *is* neither beauty nor utility.
4. Time and tide *wait* for no man.
5. Wisdom and prudence *dwell* with the lowly man.
6. *Does* either landlord or tenant profit by this bill?
7. Neither landlords nor tenants *profit* by this bill.
8. Every fly, bee, beetle, and butterfly *is* provided with six feet.
9. That desperate robber and murderer *was* finally secured.
10. That desperate robber and that murderer *were* finally secured.
11. The builder and owner of the yacht *has* sailed from Liverpool.
12. The builder and the owner of the yacht *have* sailed from Liverpool.
13. A lame and blind man *was* provided with food and lodging.
14. A lame and a blind man *were* provided with food and lodging.

Particular attention may be called to examples 9–14, that the pupils may note the effect of repeating *that*, *the*, and *a*.

Pupils should early learn that rules in grammar should not be followed rigidly and blindly, as they generally have variations and exceptions. Caution, however, should be used in presenting exceptions, lest the pupils become confused. They may be presented in reviews after the rules and general principles are well understood. They need not be formally stated, but may be introduced in the way of observation lessons that appeal to the judgment rather than to the memory. In this way such constructions as the following may be introduced :—

1. Neither he nor *I am* going.
(Better—He is not going, nor am I.)
2. Neither John nor his *sisters were* there.
3. *Action*, and not words, *is* needed.
4. *Bread and milk is* good food.
5. The *committee are* unable to agree on *their* report.
6. The *committee has* made *its* report.

Other examples may be given till the pupils are led to discover that in examples like (1) and (2) the verb agrees with its nearest subject, and that the plural subject is usually placed next to the verb; that in (3) the

verb agrees with the affirmative subject, another verb being understood with the negative subject; that in (4) "bread and milk" represents one article of food; and that in (5) the individuals of the committee are thought of, while in (6) the committee as a whole is thought of. In (5) and (6) the agreement of the pronoun may also be noted. Pronouns may be introduced into many of the preceding exercises and the pupils led to apply to the agreement of the pronoun with its antecedent what has been learned of the agreement of the verb with its subject. Let the pupils determine why the following connected subjects are arranged in the proper order:—

1. You and I are invited.
2. Mary and I are invited.
3. You and Mary are invited.
4. You and Mary and I are invited.

WRITING NAMES—CAPITALS AND ABBREVIATIONS.*

Pupils may copy the following list of names, and note all peculiarities in form:—

Texas, state, river, Red River, city, Albany, New Orleans, Kansas City, statesman, Thomas Jefferson, Thos. Jefferson, author, Charles Dickens, Chas. Dickens, writer, George William Curtis, Geo. Wm. Curtis, Geo. W. Curtis, poet, John Greenleaf Whittier, John G. Whittier, J. G. Whittier, gulf, sea, Gulf of Mexico, Caribbean Sea, lake, Lake Erie, general, General Robert Edmund Lee, Gen. Robt. E. Lee, doctor, Doctor Valentine Mott, Dr. V. Mott, professor, Prof. Goldwin Smith.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow wrote "The Song of Hiawatha."

John Bunyan wrote "The Pilgrim's Progress."

The subject for composition was "A Day in the Woods."

We give the following questions to illustrate our method of conducting an

Observation Lesson.—Are *city* and *Albany* both names? What difference can you discover in meaning? What in form? Which of the

* For list of abbreviations see p. 195.

names just written are *class* names? Which are *individual* names? Mention an individual name made up of two names; one of three names; one of four. How many capitals do you find in each of the names just mentioned? Mention seven words that are written without capitals as class names, and again with capitals as parts of individual names. Mention a word that is shortened, or *abbreviated*, by omitting all but the first, or *initial*, letter. Mention an *abbreviation* containing two letters; one containing three; one containing four. What new use of the period have you discovered in this exercise? What three words in this exercise are used together as the title of a book? What four as the title of a poem? What five as the subject of a school composition? Each of these groups may be regarded as a kind of individual name. Besides the first word, what words begin with capitals in each of these three groups? Notice that these are the principal words.

For another exercise the pupils may copy the following sentences, noting carefully capitals and punctuation marks:—

1. The city of Chicago is on Lake Michigan.
2. The steamer *City of Chicago* sails from Jersey City.
3. The island of Cuba is under Spanish rule.
4. The Isle of Man is in the Irish Sea.
5. The Hon. Wm. E. Gladstone is an English statesman.
6. The subject for composition was "The View from my Window."
7. In the evening Aunt Mary entertained my cousin and me with stories of Uncle Remus.
8. Miss Evans—afterward Mrs. Lewes—was the author of "The Mill on the Floss."
9. We may call the Supreme Being our Heavenly Father.
10. The Old Testament points to the coming of a Messiah.
11. George I., George II., George III., George IV., and William IV. preceded Victoria.

The teacher may find the following questions suggestive:—

Observation Lesson.—Is *Chicago*, or *city of Chicago* the individual name of the place mentioned in (1)? Is *Chicago*, or *City of Chicago* the name of the steamer mentioned in (2)? Is the town mentioned in (2) named *Jersey*, or *Jersey City*? Is the body of water mentioned in (1)

known as *Michigan*, or *Lake Michigan*? What is the name of the island mentioned in (8)?—in (4)? Is *Irish*, or *Irish Sea* the name of the body of water mentioned in (4)?

Notice that *Spanish*, in (3), and *English*, in (5), are not names, or nouns. They begin with capitals, because they are derived from the individual names *Spain* and *England*.

What names in (7) usually denote relationship? Notice that such words as *uncle*, *captain*, *professor*, etc., do not necessarily begin with capitals unless prefixed to individual names.

What group of words in (6) is treated as an individual name? What in (8)? Which words of these groups are regarded as the most important?

In (8) do you find a period after *Miss*?—after *Mrs.*?

Miss is not an abbreviation.

What words in (9) and (10) are used as names of the Deity? What is *Old Testament* the particular name of?

What do you discover in the names found in (11)?

For other exercises, pupils may be required to bring in lists of geographical and biographical names, titles of books, etc.

We earnestly recommend the introduction here of letter-writing to illustrate the use of capitals, abbreviations, and punctuation. (See pp. 150–162.) The writing of *headings*, *introductions*, *conclusions*, and *superscriptions* will give most excellent practice in capitals, etc. The *body* of the letter may be directed to the same end. For instance, an invitation to a friend may be accompanied by a description of the route to be taken and of the places or objects of interest to be seen on the way. Or the writer may mention some of the books he has read, with the names of the characters and of the places mentioned.

ADJECTIVES—CHOICE AND ARRANGEMENT.

Words denoting quality form a very large and important group. Our knowledge of things about us is a knowledge of their qualities. A writer's style is, to a large extent, determined by his use of adjectives. We therefore recommend special drill in the choice and the use of adjectives. The exercises given below may serve as suggestions to the teacher.

Groups of adjectives like the following may be presented, the pupils being required to join them to appropriate nouns:—

Some Qualities learned directly through the Senses.

Seeing.

scarlet	opaque	gaudy
crimson	dingy	variegated
florid	vivid	verdant
sallow	gorgeous	transparent

Hearing.

audible	deafening	monotonous
stunning	purling	discordant
thundering	husky	melodious

Smelling.

fragrant	odorous	fetid
balmy	rancid	aromatic

Tasting.

acid	delicious	palatable
acrid	insipid	savory
pungent	brackish	luscious

Feeling.

rough	hard	tepid
gritty	keen	sultry

Pupils will find little difficulty in largely increasing the lists above. Many other groupings may be made; as, of qualities learned by comparison, measurement, or experiment; qualities of the mind; qualities pertaining to right and wrong, etc.

Groups of nouns like the following may be made, and the pupils may be required to mention as many qualities as possible belonging to each of the things named:—

chalk	ice	brooks	clouds
water	snow	ocean	music

Pupils may mention animals properly described by the following adjectives:—

timid	fleet	cunning	ferocious
gentle	graceful	sagacious	venomous

Careless persons and those that have a meager list of adjectives at command overwork and abuse such words as—

nice, awful, horrid, splendid, elegant, lovely.

We hear of *nice mountains, awful pens, horrid ink, splendid pie, elegant beef, lovely cheese*, etc.

Pupils may study the meaning of the six adjectives last mentioned, and use them to fill the following blanks:—

_____	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{distinction} \\ \text{workmanship} \\ \text{calculation} \end{array} \right.$	_____	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{palace} \\ \text{victory} \\ \text{illumination} \end{array} \right.$
_____	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{stillness} \\ \text{chasm} \\ \text{rumbling} \end{array} \right.$	_____	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{manners} \\ \text{taste} \\ \text{furniture} \end{array} \right.$
_____	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{child} \\ \text{features} \\ \text{character} \end{array} \right.$	_____	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{deeds} \\ \text{dreams} \\ \text{butchery} \end{array} \right.$

This work may very profitably be extended.

A word picture is often spoiled by using too many adjectives ; as,

“A *great, large, roomy, spacious* hall”;

“*Superb, delicious, magnificent* pumpkin-pie”;

“A *stingy, miserly, close-fisted* fellow.”

The italicized words may be omitted.

Pupils should be taught to watch for such errors, and to correct them.

Pupils may be required to copy choice selections from literature, and to note carefully capitals, punctuation, and the use of adjectives. We offer the following exercise as a specimen :—

We piled with care our nightly stack
Of wood against the chimney-back,—
The oaken log, green, huge, and thick,
And on its top the stout back-stick :

The knotty fore-stick laid apart,
 And filled between with curious art
 The ragged brush ; then, hovering near,
 We watched the first red blaze appear,
 Heard the sharp crackle, caught the gleam
 On whitewashed wall and sagging beam,
 Until the old, rude-furnished room
 Burst, flower-like, into rosy bloom.

Whittier.—Snow-Bound.

Observation Lesson.—Of what are the lines above a picture ? Where, and in what kind of house, do you think this picture was seen ?

What object is pictured by the help of five adjectives ? Are the adjectives that precede the name of this object of the same rank ? Are those that follow of the same rank ? What noun is modified by three adjectives of different rank ? What noun by three adjectives two of which are of the same rank ? What difference is found in the punctuation of these several groups ?

Notice how the noun *crackle* crackles as you pronounce it, and how the adjective *sharp* makes it penetrate. Notice how strong a picture is made in the two lines immediately before the last. The adjectives here used bring out the most prominent qualities of the room, and these qualities bring along with them into the imagination all the other qualities. This is what we must try to make our adjectives do.

Point out all the adjectives in the selection above, and explain the office of each.

What peculiar use of capitals do you discover in these lines of poetry ?

Much that has been suggested above concerning the use of adjectives will apply to adverbs also.

ARRANGEMENT.

The following exercises are given to show how pupils may discover for themselves the *natural order* of words and phrases :—

- (a) Wellington defeated Napoleon at Waterloo.
- (b) William's sister Mary is an excellent musician.
- (c) Everything suddenly appeared so strangely bright.
We saw it distinctly.

- (e) We had often been there.
- (f) Napoleon was defeated at Waterloo.

Observation Lesson.—The words and the phrases in the sentences above stand in their *Natural Order*.

From (a) and (b) determine the natural order of the subject, predicate, and complement. From (b) determine the natural order of a possessive modifier, of an explanatory modifier, and of an adjective. From (c), (d), and (e) determine the several positions of an adverb joined to a verb. Determine from (c) the position of an adverb modifying an adjective or another adverb. Determine from (a) and (f) the natural order of a phrase.

Pupils may copy the following, and note the arrangement and the punctuation of the phrases:—

- (g) This place is endeared to me by many associations.
- (h) To me, this place is endeared by many associations.
- (i) Your answers, with few exceptions, have been correctly given.
- (j) He applied for the position, without a recommendation.

Observation Lesson.—Phrases in their natural order follow the words they modify. When two or more phrases belong to the same word, the one most closely modifying it stands nearest to it.

In the first sentence above, *to me* tells to whom the place is endeared; *by many associations* tells how it is endeared to me, and is therefore placed after *to me*. Try the effect of placing *to me* last. Phrases, like adjectives, may be of different rank.

Phrases are often transposed, or placed out of their natural order.

Notice that *to me*, in (h) above, is transposed, and thus made emphatic, and that it is set off by the comma.

In (i), the phrase is loosely thrown in as if it were not essential, thus making a break in the sentence. To make this apparent to the eye we set the phrase off by the comma.

Place the phrase of (i) in three other positions, and set it off. When the phrase is at the beginning or at the end of the sentence, how many commas do you need to set it off? How many, when it is in the middle? Do you find any choice in the four positions of this phrase? After

having been told that your answers were correct, would it be a disappointment to be told that they were not all correct? Is the interest in a story best kept up by first telling the important points and then the unimportant particulars? What then do you think of placing this phrase at the end?

What does the last phrase of (*j*) modify? Take out the comma, and then see whether there can be any doubt as to what the phrase modifies.

In the placing of adverbs and phrases great freedom is often allowable, and the determining of their best possible position affords an almost unlimited opportunity for the exercise of taste and judgment.

Such questions as those on (*i*) above may suggest a mode of easy approach to what is usually relegated to the province of rhetoric. Let the pupils see that phrases may be transposed for various reasons—for emphasis, as in (*h*) above; for the purpose of exciting the reader's curiosity and holding his attention till the complete statement is made, as in (*t*) above, or in, "In the dead of night, with a chosen band, under the cover of a truce, he approached"; for the sake of balancing the sentence by letting some of the modifying terms precede, and some follow, the principal parts, as, "In 1837, on the death of William IV., Victoria succeeded to the throne"; and for other reasons.

Other selections may be made and these exercises continued, the pupils discussing fully the effects of all possible changes.

Pupils may note the transposed words and phrases in the following sentences, explaining their office and the effect of the transposition:—

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------|
| 1. Victories, indeed, they were. | 6. A mighty man is he. |
| 2. Down came the masts. | 7. That gale I well remember. |
| 3. Here stands the man. | 8. Behind her rode Lalla Rookh. |
| 4. Doubtful seemed the battle. | 9. Blood-red became the sun. |
| 5. Wide open stood the doors. | 10. Louder waxed the applause. |
| 11. Him the Almighty Power hurled headlong. | |
| 12. Slowly and sadly we laid him down. | |
| 13. Into the valley of death rode the six hundred. | |
| 14. So died the great Columbus of the skies. | |
| 15. <i>Aeneas</i> did, from the flames of Troy, upon his shoulders, the old Anchises bear. | |

16. Such a heart in the breast of my people beats.
17. The great fire up the deep and wide chimney roared.
18. Ease and grace in writing are, of all the acquisitions made in school, the most difficult and valuable.

Pupils may read or write the following sentences in the transposed order, and explain the effect of the change:—

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------|
| 19. He could not avoid it. | 22. He ended his tale here. |
| 20. He would not escape. | 23. It stands written so. |
| 21. I must go. | 24. She seemed young and sad. |
| 25. I will make one more effort to save you. | |
| 26. My regrets were bitter and unavailing. | |
| 27. I came into the world helpless. | |
| 28. A sincere word was never utterly lost. | |
| 29. Catiline shall no longer plot her ruin. | |

ORDER OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

30. Who wrote the Declaration of Independence?
31. What states border on the Gulf of Mexico?
32. Whom did you see?
33. What is poetry?
34. Which course will you choose?
35. Why are the days shorter in winter?
36. When was America discovered?
37. Were you there?
38. Has the North Pole been reached?

Observation Lesson.—When the interrogative word is subject or a modifier of it, is the order natural, or transposed? See (30) and (31) above.

When the interrogative word is object or attribute complement, or a modifier of either, what is the order? See (32), (33), and (34).

When the interrogative word is an adverb, what is the order? See (35) and (36).

When there is no interrogative word, what is the order? See (37) and (38).

The sentences above will furnish profitable review lessons in *analysis*.

REVIEW—COMPOSITION.

We suggest that, from two or more paragraphs of some interesting and instructive article, leading sentences be selected, and that the pupils be required to explain the office and the punctuation of the easier adjective and adverb phrases, to vary the arrangement in every possible way, and to discuss the effects of these changes. Then, after finding the general subject and the heading for each paragraph, the pupils may arrange these sentences and work them into a composition, making such additions as may be suggested.

RESTRICTIVE MODIFIERS—PUNCTUATION.

The chief difficulty in the punctuation of the different kinds of modifiers is in determining whether or not they are restrictive. The following examples may serve as the basis of an observation lesson:—

- (a) The words *golden* and *oriole* are pleasant to the ear.
- (b) Words, the signs of ideas, are spoken and written.
- (c) Use words that are current.
- (d) Words, which are the signs of ideas, are spoken and written.
- (e) The country anciently called Gaul is now called France.
- (f) France, anciently called Gaul, derived its name from the Franks.
- (g) Glass bends easily when it is hot.
- (h) I met him in Paris, when I was last abroad.

The following explanations may be drawn from the pupils:—

In (a) the application of *words* is limited, or restricted, to the two words mentioned; in (c) *words* is restricted to a certain kind. In (b) and (d) the modifiers do not restrict. They apply to all words and simply add information. In (e) the participial phrase restricts the application of *country* to one particular country; but in (f) the phrase describes without limiting. The omission of the comma in (g) shows that *Glass bends easily* is not offered as a general statement, but that the action is restricted to a certain time or condition. *When it is hot* is essential to the intended meaning. The punctuation of (h) shows that the speaker does not wish to make the time of meeting a prominent or essential part of what he has to say. The adverb clause simply gives additional infor-

mation. If (*h*) were an answer to the question, When did you meet him? the comma would be omitted. The sense may be varied by the use or the omission of the comma.

Let the pupils see how incomplete the statements are when the restrictive modifiers are omitted, and that the other modifiers are not so necessary to the sense. In such expressions as *I myself, we boys*, the explanatory words are not restrictive, but they combine closely with the modified term.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

Adjective clauses allow little change in position. They usually follow closely the word modified. Often they may be contracted into adjectives or into adjective phrases.

Selections from standard writers may be made with special reference to the study of adjective clauses. The position, punctuation, and choice of relatives may be noticed, and, as far as possible, the clauses may be changed into equivalent adjectives or into phrases.

ADVERB CLAUSES.

An adverb clause may stand before the independent clause, between its parts, or after it; as, "When it is hot, glass bends easily;" "Glass, when it is hot, bends easily;" "Glass bends easily when it is hot." Notice the punctuation of these examples.

Adverb clauses may be contracted in various ways. Clauses introduced by the comparatives *as* and *than* are usually found in an abbreviated form; as, "You are as old *as* he (*is old*);;" "You are older *than* I (*am old*)."¹ Attention may be called to the danger of mistaking here the nominative for the objective. We suggest making selections for the study of adverb clauses.

NOUN CLAUSES.

Noun clauses may be contracted; as, "*That we should obey* is necessary" = "*Obedience* is necessary," or, "*To obey* is necessary;" "*I can hardly realize that my friend is gone*" = "*I can hardly realize my friend's being gone*." By substituting *it* for the subject clause, this clause may be placed last and made explanatory; as, "*It* is necessary

that we should obey." The object clause is sometimes transposed; as, "*That my friend is gone, I can hardly realize.*" The noun clause may be made prominent by introducing the independent clause parenthetically; as, "*His story, we believe, is exaggerated.*"

Notice the punctuation of the clauses above. The noun clause used as attribute complement is generally set off by the comma. Noun clauses that are quotations need special treatment.

NOUN CLAUSES—QUOTATIONS.

We suggest the following observation lesson:—

1. Goldsmith says, "Learn the luxury of doing good."
2. Goldsmith says that we should learn the luxury of doing good.
3. "The owlet Atheism, hooting at the glorious sun in heaven, cries out, 'Where is it?'"
4. Coleridge compares atheism to an owlet hooting at the sun, and asking where it is.
5. "To read without reflecting," says Burke, "is like eating without digesting."
6. May we not find "sermons in stones and good in everything"?
7. There is much meaning in the following quotation: "Books are embalmed minds."
8. We must ask, What are we living for?
9. We must ask what we are living for.

Observation Lesson.—Notice that the writer of (1) has copied into his sentence (quoted) the exact language of Goldsmith. The two marks like inverted commas and the two marks like apostrophes, which inclose this copied passage (quotation), are called *Quotation Marks*.

Name all the differences between (1) and (2). Is the same thought expressed in both? Which quotation would you call *direct*? Which, *indirect*?

Notice that the whole of (3) is a quotation, and that this quotation contains another quotation inclosed within *single marks*. Notice the order of the marks at the end of (3).

Point out the differences between (3) and (4). In which is a question quoted just as it would be asked? In which is a question merely referred

to? Which question would you call *direct*? Which, *indirect*? Name every difference in the form of these.

In which of the above sentences is a quotation interrupted by a parenthetical clause? How are the parts marked?

Point out a quotation that cannot make complete sense by itself. How does it differ from the others as to punctuation and the first letter?

In (7) a *Colon* precedes the quotation to show that it is *formally introduced*.

In (8) a question is introduced without quotation marks. Questions that, like this, are introduced without being referred to any particular person or persons, are often written without quotation marks. State the differences between (8) and (9).

In quoting a question, the interrogation point must stand within the quotation marks; but, when a question contains a quotation, this order is reversed. Point out illustrations above.

Sum up what you have learned. (See rules for capitals, comma, colon, and quotation marks, pp. 144-147.)

Selections written in the colloquial style and containing frequent quotations and questions may be taken from reading-books, for examination, discussion, and copying. Noun phrases may be expanded, and noun clauses contracted, transposed, etc.

INDEPENDENT CLAUSES.

Frequently independent clauses are contracted by using repeated parts but once and uniting the other parts into a compound term, as in Lesson 67. They are also contracted by omitting such words as may be readily understood; as, "Is it true, *or not*;" "He is a philosopher, *not a poet*." For punctuation, see rules for the comma and the semicolon, p. 145.

REVIEW—COMPOSITION.

We recommend that the teacher select some short article containing valuable information and break up each paragraph into short, disconnected expressions. One paragraph at a time may be put on the board for the pupils to copy. The general subject may be given, and the pupils may be required to find a proper heading for the paragraph. The different ways of connecting the expressions may be discussed in the class. By

contracting, expanding, transposing, and by substituting entirely different words, a great variety of forms may be had. (The forms found in the "Example," p. 148, and the list of connectives, p. 194, may be helpful.) The pupils may then combine the different paragraphs into a composition. For the explanation of *paragraph*, see p. 149, and for the form of writing paragraphs, see p. 156, etc.

We give below material for one composition:—

Frog's spawn found in a pond. At first like a mass of jelly. Eggs can be distinguished.

In a few days curious little fish are hatched. These "tadpoles" are lively. Swim by means of long tails. Head very large—out of proportion. Appearance of all head and tail. This creature is a true fish. It breathes water-air by means of gills. It has a two-chambered heart.

Watch it day by day. Two little gills seen. These soon disappear. Hind legs begin to grow. Tail gets smaller. Two small arms, or forelegs, are seen. Remarkable change going on inside. True lungs for breathing air have been forming. Another chamber added to the heart.

As the gills grow smaller, it finds difficulty in breathing water-air. One fine day it pokes its nose out of the water. Astonished (possibly) to find that it can breathe in the air. A new life has come upon it. No particular reason for spending all its time in water; crawls out upon land; sits down upon its haunches; surveys the world. It is no longer a fish; has entered upon a higher stage of existence; has become a frog.

This work of analyzing a composition to find the leading thoughts under which the other thoughts may be grouped is in many ways a most valuable discipline.

It teaches the pupil to compare, to discriminate, to weigh, to systematize, to read intelligently and profitably.

The reading-book will afford excellent practice in finding heads for paragraphs. Such work is an essential preparation for the reading-class.

This composition work should serve as a constant review of all that has been passed over in the text-book.

ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS AND ADVERBS.

It is often difficult to distinguish an adjective complement from an adverb modifier. We offer the following explanation:—

"Mary arrived *safe*." As we here wish to tell the *condition* of Mary on her arrival, and *not* the *manner* of her arriving, we use *safe*, not *safely*. "My head feels *bad*" (is in a bad condition, as perceived by the sense of feeling). "The sun shines *bright*" (is bright—quality,—as perceived by its shining).

You must determine whether you wish to tell the *quality* of the thing named or the *manner* of the action.

When the idea of *being* is prominent in the verb, as in the examples above, you see that the adjective, and not the adverb, follows.

Let the pupils show that the following adjectives and adverbs are used correctly:—

1. I feel sad.
2. I feel deeply.
3. I feel miserable.
4. He appeared prompt and willing.
5. He appeared promptly and willingly.
6. She looks beautiful.
7. She sings beautifully.

PAST PARTICIPLES AND PREDICATE VERBS DISTINGUISHED.

When the past tense and the past participle differ in form, they are often confounded in use; as,

I *done* it;
I *seen* it.

Pupils may be required to construct short sentences, oral or written, using the *Past* forms found in Lesson 91 as predicates, and the *Past Participle* forms either as modifiers or as completing words in compound verbs.

They may be led to some such conclusion as the following:—

The *Past* is always an asserting, or predicate, word; the *Past Participle* never asserts, but is used as an adjective modifier or as the completing word of a compound verb; the *Present* may be used as a predicate or as an infinitive.

Exercises like the following may be copied, and repeated aloud:—

- | | |
|--|------------------------------------|
| 1. <i>Lay</i> down your pen. | 8. <i>Sit</i> down and rest. |
| 2. <i>Lie</i> down, Rover. | 9. I then <i>set</i> it down. |
| 3. I <i>laid</i> down my pen. | 10. I <i>sat</i> down and rested. |
| 4. The dog then <i>lay</i> down. | 11. I have <i>set</i> it down. |
| 5. I have <i>laid</i> down my pen. | 12. I have <i>sat</i> down. |
| 6. The dog has <i>lain</i> down. | 13. My work was <i>laid</i> aside. |
| 7. <i>Set</i> the pail down. | 14. I was <i>lying</i> down. |
| 15. The trap was <i>set</i> by the river. | |
| 16. I was <i>sitting</i> by the river. | |
| 17. The garment <i>sits</i> well. | |
| 18. The hen <i>sits</i> on her eggs. | |
| 19. He came in and <i>lay</i> down. | |
| 20. The Mediterranean <i>lies</i> between Europe and Africa. | |

Notice that we may speak of *laying* something or *setting* something, or may say that something is *laid* or is *set*; but we cannot speak of *lying* or *sitting* something, or of something being *lain* or *sat*. *Set*, in some of its meanings, is used without an object; as, “The sun *set*;” “He *set* out on a journey.”

Lay, the present of the first verb, and *lay*, the past of *lie*, may easily be distinguished by the difference in meaning and in the time expressed.

POSSESSIVE FORMS.

Pupils may be required to copy such forms as the following:—

The sailor's story; the farmer's son; the pony's mane; the monkey's tail; a day's work; James's book; a cent's worth; a man's wages; the child's toys; the woman's hat; the sailors' stories; the farmers' sons; the ponies' manes; the monkeys' tails; three days' work; five cents' worth; two men's wages; those children's toys; women's hats.

This may be continued till the pupils are able to form some such statement as the following:—

(‘s) and (’) are the possessive signs, (’) being used when *s* has been added to denote more than one, (‘s) in other cases.

Such expressions as the following may be copied:—

Dombey and Son's business; J. J. Little & Co.'s printing-house; William the Conqueror's reign; Houghton, Mifflin, and Company's publications.

This may be continued till the pupils learn that, when a group of words may be treated as a compound name, the possessive sign is added to the last word only.

THE OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT.

The treatment of the objective complement may be introduced in a review course, when the class is sufficiently mature. The following explanation may aid some teachers:—

In “It made him *sad*,” *made* does not fully express the action performed upon him—not “*made him*,” but “*made sad* (*saddened*) him.” *Sad* helps *made* to express the action, and also denotes a quality which as the result of the action belongs to the person represented by the object *him*.

Whatever completes the predicate and belongs to the object we call an *Objective Complement*.

Nouns, infinitives, and participles may also be used in the same way; as,

“They made Victoria *queen*;”

“It made him *weep*;”

“It kept him *laughing*. ”

They | made , queen | Victoria Explanation.—The line that separates *made* from *queen* slants toward the object complement to show that *queen* belongs to the object.

A noun or pronoun used as objective complement is in the objective case.

The teacher may here explain such constructions as, “I proved it to

be *him*,” in which *it* is object complement and *to be him* is objective complement. *Him*, the attribute complement of *be*, is in the objective case because *it*, the assumed subject of *be*, is objective. Let the pupils compare “I proved it to be *him*” with “I proved that it was *he*;” “Whom did you suppose it to be?” with “Who did you suppose it was?” etc.

NOUNS AS ADVERB MODIFIERS.

The following uses of nouns and pronouns, not found in the preceding Lessons, may be introduced in a review course.

1. He gave *John* a book.
2. He bought *me* a book.

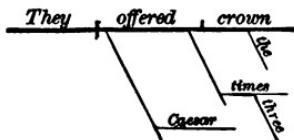
John and *me*, as here used, are generally called *Indirect Objects*. The “indirect object” names the one *to* or *for* whom something is done. We treat these words as phrase modifiers without the preposition. If we change the order, the preposition must be supplied; as, “He gave a book *to John*;” “He bought a book *for me*.”

Nouns denoting *measure*, *quantity*, *weight*, *time*, *value*, *distance*, or *direction* may be used adverbially, being equivalent to phrase modifiers without the preposition; as,

1. We walked four *miles* an *hour*.
2. It weighs one *pound*.
3. It is worth a *dollar*.
4. The wall is ten *feet*, six *inches* high.
5. I went *home* that *way*.

The following diagram will illustrate both the “indirect object” and the “noun of measure:”—

They offered Cæsar the crown three times.



Explanation.—Cæsar (the “indirect object”) and *times* (denoting measure) stand in the diagram on lines representing the principal words of prepositional phrases.

SCHEMES FOR REVIEW.

These schemes will be found very helpful in a general review. The pupils should be able to reproduce them, omitting the Lesson numbers.

Scheme for the Sentence.

(*The numbers refer to Lessons.*)

PARTS.	Subject.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Noun or Pronoun (6, 14, 19).} \\ \text{Phrase (49).} \\ \text{Clause (61).} \end{array} \right.$
	Predicate.	Verb (6, 16).
	Complements.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{Object.} & \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Noun or Pronoun (39).} \\ \text{Phrase (49).} \\ \text{Clause (61).} \end{array} \right. \\ \text{Attribute.} & \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Adjective (39).} \\ \text{Noun or Pronoun (42).} \\ \text{Phrase.} \\ \text{Clause (61).} \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right.$
	Modifiers.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Adjectives (20, 22).} \\ \text{Adverbs (24, 27).} \\ \text{Participles (48).} \\ \text{Nouns and Pronouns (58).} \\ \text{Phrases (31, 48, 49).} \\ \text{Clauses (57, 59).} \end{array} \right.$
	Connectives.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Conjunctions (35, 36, 62).} \\ \text{Pronouns (57).} \\ \text{Adverbs (59).} \end{array} \right.$
	Independent Parts (36, 64).	
	Classes—Meaning.	—Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, Exclamatory (63).
	Classes—Form.	—Simple, Complex, Compound (57, 62).

Scheme for the Noun.

(The numbers refer to *Lessons*.)

N O U N (14).	Uses.	{ Subject (6). Object Complement (39). Attribute Complement (42). Adjective Modifier (53). Prin. word in Prep. Phrase (34). Independent (64).
	Classes.	
	Modifications.	Number. { Singular (78, 79). Plural (78, 79). Gender. { Masculine } (80). Feminine Neuter Person. { First Second } (81-83). Third Case. { Nominative Possessive } (81-85). Objective

Scheme for the Pronoun.

P R O N O U N S .	Uses. —Same as those of the Noun.	{ Personal Relative Interrogative Adjective
	Classes.	
	Modifications. —Same as those of the Noun (78 80, 81, 82, 83, 85, 95).	

Scheme for the Verb.

(The numbers refer to Lessons.)

VERB.	Uses.	{ To assert action, being, or state.—Predicate (6, 16). { To assume action, being, or state. { Participles (48). { Infinitives (49).	
	Classes.	{ Form. { Regular (74). { Irregular (74, 91). { Meaning. { Transitive (74). { Intransitive (74).	
		{ Voice. { Active (89). { Passive (89).	
		{ Mode. { Indicative { Potential { Subjunctive { Imperative } (90-94).	
	Modifications.	{ Tense. { Present { Past { Future { Present Perfect { Past Perfect { Future Perfect } (90-94).	
		{ Number. { Singular { Plural } (90, 92-95).	
		{ Person. { First { Second { Third } (90, 92-95).	
	Participles.—	Classes.	{ Present { Past { Past Perfect } (90-94, 96, 98).
	Infinitives.—	Tenses.	{ Present { Present Perfect } (90, 92-94).

Scheme for the Adjective.*(The numbers refer to Lessons.)*

ADJECTIVE.	Uses.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Modifier (20, 22).} \\ \text{Attribute Complement (39).} \end{array} \right\}$
	Classes.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Descriptive (73).} \\ \text{Definitive (73).} \end{array} \right\}$
	Modification.—Comparison.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Pos. Deg.} \\ \text{Comp. " " } \\ \text{Sup. " " } \end{array} \right\} (87, 88).$

Scheme for the Adverb.

ADVERB.	Classes.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Time} \\ \text{Place} \\ \text{Degree} \\ \text{Manner} \end{array} \right\} (75).$
	Modification.—Comparison.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Pos. Deg.} \\ \text{Comp. " " } \\ \text{Sup. " " } \end{array} \right\} (87, 88).$

Schemes for the Conj., Prep., and Int.

THE CONJUNCTION.—**Classes.** $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Co-ordinate} \\ \text{Subordinate} \end{array} \right\} (36, 76).$ No Modifications.

THE PREPOSITION (34, 41).—No Classes. No Modifications.

THE INTERJECTION (36).—No Classes. No Modifications.

Model for Written Parsing adapted to all Parts of Speech.—Oh ! it has a voice for those who on their sick beds lie and waste away.

CLASSIFICATION.

Sentence.	Class.	Sub-C.	Voice.	Mode.	Tense.	Per.	Num.	Gen.	Class.	Deg. of Comp.	SYNTAX.
Oh !	Int.		Per.			3d.	Sing.	Neut.	Nom.	Independent.	
it	Pro.		Ir., Tr.	Act.	Ind.	Pres.	"	"	Obj.	Sub. of has.	
has	Vb.		Def.				"	"		Pred. of it.	
a	Adj.									Mod. of voice.	
voice	N.	Conn.								Obj. Com. of has.	
for	Prep.									Shows Rel. of has to those.	
these	Pro.	Adj.								Prin. word after for.	
who	Pro.	Rel.								Sub. of he and waste.	
on	Prep.									Shows Rel. of lie to beds.	
their	Pro.	Per.								Pos. Mod. of beds.	
sick	Adj.	Des.								Pos. Mod. of beds.	
beds	N.	Conn.								Prin. word after on.	
lie	Vb.	Ir., Int.	—		Ind.	Pres.	"	"	Obj.	Pred. of who.	
and	Conj.	Co-or.								Con. lie and waste.	
waste	Vb.	Reg., Int.	—			"	"	"		Pred. of who.	
away.	Adv.	Place								Mod. of waste.	

For exercises in general parsing, select from the preceding Lessons on Analysis.

Ala. , Alabama.	C. O. D. , Collect on delivery.
Alex. , Alexander.	Col. , Colonel; Colossians.
A. M. or M. A. (<i>Artium Magister</i>), Master of Arts.	Coll. , College; Collector.
A. M. (<i>ante meridiem</i>), Before noon.	Conn. , Connecticut.
Amt. , Amount.	Colo. or Col. , Colorado.
And. , Andrew.	Cr. , Credit; Creditor.
Anon. , Anonymous.	cub. ft. , Cubic feet.
Ans. , Answer.	cub. in. , Cubic inches.
Anth. , Anthony.	cwt. , Hundred-weight.
Apr. , April.	d. , Days; Pence.
Arch. , Archibald.	Danl. or Dan. , Daniel.
Ark. , Arkansas.	D. C. , District of Columbia.
Arizona or Ariz. , Arizona Territory.	D. C. L. , Doctor of Civil Law.
Atty. , Attorney.	D.D. (<i>Divinitatis Doctor</i>), Doctor of Divinity.
Atty.-Gen. , Attorney-General.	D.D.S. , Doctor of Dental Surgery.
Aug. , August; Augustus.	Dec. , December.
Av. or Ave. , Avenue.	Del. , Delaware.
Avoir. , Avoirdupois.	Deut. , Deuteronomy.
Bart. , Baronet.	D. G. (<i>Dei gratia</i>), By the grace of God.
bbl. , Barrels.	Dist.-Atty. , District-Attorney.
B. C. , Before Christ.	D. M. , Doctor of Music.
Benj. , Benjamin.	do. (<i>ditto</i>), The same.
Brig.-Gen. , Brigadier-General.	doz. , Dozen.
B. S. , Bachelor of Science.	Dr. , Doctor; Debtor.
bu. , Bushels.	D. V. (<i>Deo volente</i>), God willing.
¢ or ct. , Cents.	E. , East.
Cal. , California.	Eben. , Ebenezer.
Cap. , Capital. Caps. , Capitals.	Eccl. , Ecclesiastes.
Capt. , Captain.	Ed. , Edition; Editor.
C. E. , Civil Engineer.	Edm. , Edmund.
cf. (<i>confer</i>), Compare.	Edw. , Edward.
Chas. , Charles.	e. g. (<i>exempli gratia</i>), For example.
Chron. , Chronicles.	E. N. E. , East-northeast.
Co. , Company; County.	Eng. , English; England.
c/o. , In care of.	Eph. , Ephesians; Ephraim.

E. S. E. , East-southeast.	H. M. , His (or Her) Majesty.
Esq. , Esquire.	Hon. , Honorable.
et al. (et alibi) , And elsewhere.	Hos. , Hosea.
et al. (et alii) , And others.	H.R.H. , His (or Her) Royal Highness.
et seq. (et sequentia) , And following.	ib. or ibid. (<i>ibidem</i>), In the same place.
etc. or &c. (<i>et cetera</i>), And others; And so forth.	id. (idem) , The same.
Ex. , Example; Exodus.	Idaho. , Idaho.
Ez. , Ezra.	i. e. (id est) , That is.
Ezek. , Ezekiel.	I. H. S. (Jesus hominum Salvator) , Jesus, the Savior of Men.
Fahr. or F. , Fahrenheit (thermometer).	Ill. , Illinois.
Feb. , February.	in. , Inches.
Fla. , Florida.	incog. (incognito) , Unknown.
Fr. , French; France.	Ind. , Indiana.
Fran. , Francis.	Ind. T. , Indian Territory.
Fred. , Frederic.	inst. , Instant, the present month.
Fri. , Friday.	Iowa or Io. , Iowa.
ft. , Feet.	I.O.O.F. , Independent Order of Odd Fellows.
 Ft. , Fort.	Isa. , Isaiah.
fur. , Furlong.	Jac. , Jacob.
Ga. , Georgia.	Jan. , January.
Gal. , Galatians.	Jas. , James.
gal. , Gallons.	Jer. , Jeremiah.
Gen. , General; Genesis.	Jona. , Jonathan.
Geo. , George.	Jos. , Joseph.
Gov. , Governor.	Josh. , Joshua.
gr. , Grains.	Jr. or Jun. , Junior.
h. , Hours.	Judg. , Judges.
Hab. , Habakkuk.	Kans. or Kan. , Kansas.
Hag. , Haggai.	Ky. , Kentucky.
H. B. M. , His (or Her) Britannic Majesty.	L. , Line; ll. , Lines.
hdkf. , Handkerchief.	l. or £ , Pounds sterling.
Heb. , Hebrews.	La. , Louisiana.
H. H. , His Holiness (the Pope).	Lam. , Lamentations.
hhd. , Hogsheads.	

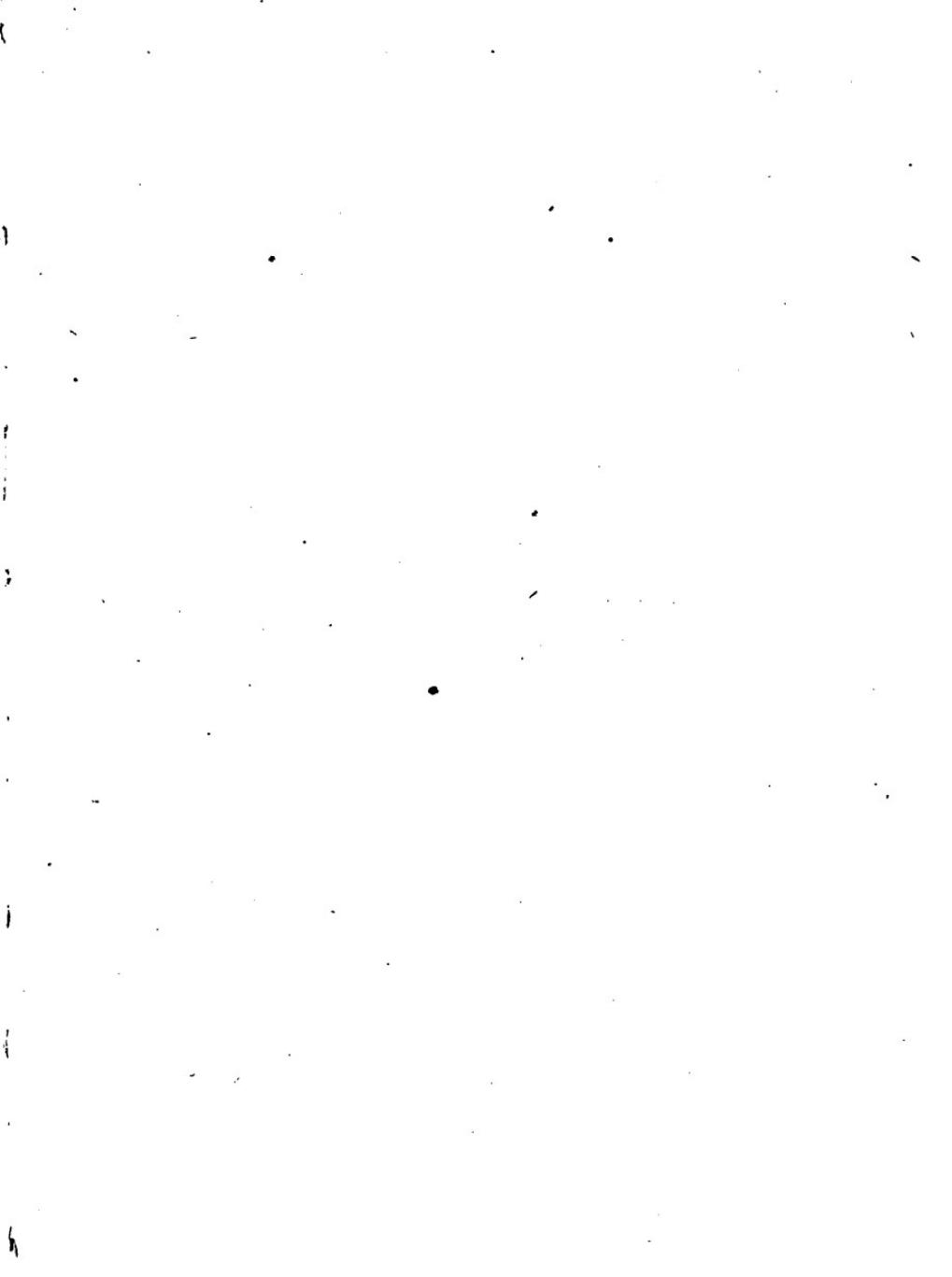
L., Latin.	Mon., Monday.
Ib. or lb. (<i>libra</i> or <i>libras</i>), Pound or pounds in weight.	M. P., Member of Parliament.
l. c., Lower case (small letter).	Mont., Montana.
Lev., Leviticus.	Mr., Mister.
L. I., Long Island.	Mrs., Mistress (pronounced Missis).
Lieut., Lieutenant.	MS., Manuscript.
LL.B. (<i>Legum Baccalaureus</i>), Bachelor of Laws.	MSS., Manuscripts.
LL.D. (<i>Legum Doctor</i>), Doctor of Laws.	Mt., Mountain.
M. or Mons., Monsieur.	N., North.
M. (<i>meridies</i>), Noon.	N. A., North America.
m., Miles; Minutes.	Nath., Nathaniel.
Mad., Madam. Mme., Madame.	N. B. (<i>nota bene</i>), Mark well.
Maj., Major.	N. C., North Carolina.
Mal., Malachi.	N. Dak., North Dakota.
Mar., March.	N. E., New England.
Mass., Massachusetts.	N. E., Northeast.
Matt., Matthew.	Nebr. or Neb., Nebraska.
M. C., Member of Congress.	Neh., Nehemiah.
M. D. (<i>Medicinas Doctor</i>), Doctor of Medicine.	Nev., Nevada.
Md., Maryland.	N. H., New Hampshire.
mdse., Merchandise.	N. J., New Jersey.
Me., Maine.	N. Mex. or N. M., New Mexico.
Mem., Memorandum; Memoranda.	N. N. E., North-northeast.
Messrs., Messieurs.	N. N. W., North-northwest.
Mic., Micah.	N. O., New Orleans.
Mgr., Monseigneur.	No. (<i>numero</i>), Number.
Mich., Michigan; Michael.	Nov., November.
Minn., Minnesota.	N. W., Northwest.
Miss., Mississippi.	N. Y., New York.
Mlle., Mademoiselle.	Obad., Obadiah.
Mmes., Mesdames.	Oct., October.
Mo., Missouri.	Ohio or O., Ohio.
mo., Months.	Oreg. or Or., Oregon.
	Oxon. (<i>Oxonia</i>), Oxford.
	oz., Ounces.
	p., Page. pp., Pages.
	Pa. or Penn., Pennsylvania.

Payt. , or payt. , Payment.	S., South.
per cent. , or per ct. (<i>per centum</i>) or %, By the hundred.	s., Shillings.
Ph. D. (<i>Philosophiae Doctor</i>), Doc- tor of Philosophy.	S. A. , South America.
Phil. , Philip; Philippians.	Saml. or Sam. , Samuel.
Phila. , Philadelphia.	Sat. , Saturday.
pk. , Pecks.	S. C. , South Carolina.
P. M. , Postmaster.	S. Dak. , South Dakota.
P. M. or p. m. (<i>post meridiem</i>), Afternoon.	S. E. , Southeast.
P. O. , Post-Office.	Sec. , Secretary.
Pres. , President.	sec. , Seconds.
Prof. , Professor.	Sep. or Sept. , September.
Pro tem. (<i>pro tempore</i>), For the time being.	Sol. , Solomon.
Prov. , Proverbs.	sq. ft. , Square feet.
prox. (<i>proximo</i>), The next month.	sq. in. , Square inches.
P. S. , Postscript.	sq. m. , Square miles.
Ps. , Psalms.	S.S.E. , South-southeast.
pt. , Pints.	S.S.W. , South-southwest.
pwt. , Pennyweights.	St. , Street; Saint.
qt. , Quarts.	S. T. D. (<i>Sacrae Theologie Doctor</i>), Doctor of Divinity.
q. v. (<i>quod vide</i>), Which see.	Sun. , Sunday.
Qy. , Query.	Supt. , Superintendent.
rd. , Rods.	S. W. , Southwest.
Recd. , Received.	T. , Tons; Tuns.
Rev. , Reverend; Revelation.	Tenn. , Tennessee.
R. I. , Rhode Island.	Tex. , Texas.
Robt. , Robert.	Theo. , Theodore.
Rom. , Romans (Book of); Roman letters.	Theoph. , Theophilus.
R. R. , Railroad.	Thess. , Thessalonians.
R. S. V. P. (<i>Répondez s'il vous plaît</i>), Answer, if you please.	Thos. , Thomas.
Rt. Hon. , Right Honorable.	Thurs. , Thursday.
Rt. Rev. , Right Reverend.	Tim. , Timothy.
	tr. , Transpose.
	Treas. , Treasurer.
	Tues. , Tuesday.
	ult. (<i>ultimo</i>), Last—last month.
	U. S. or U. S. A. , United States

of America; United States Army.	Wed., Wednesday.
U. S. M. , United States Mail.	Wis., Wisconsin.
U. S. N. , United States Navy.	wk., Weeks.
Utah or U. Ter. , Utah Territory.	Wm., William.
Va. , Virginia.	W.N.W. , West-northwest.
Vice-Pres. , Vice-President.	W.S.W. , West-southwest.
viz. (videlicet) , To wit, namely.	W. Va. , West Virginia.
vol. , Volume.	Wyo. , Wyoming.
vs. (versus) , Against.	Xmas. , Christmas.
Vt. , Vermont.	yd., Yards.
W. , West.	y. or yr., Years.
Wash. , Washington.	Zech. , Zechariah.
	& Co., And Company.







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